AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

The Deaf,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

R. O. JOHNSON, OF INDIANA, F. D. CLARKE, OF MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA, A. L. E. CROUTER, OF PENNSYLVANIA, AND J. W. JONES, OF OHIO,

Committee of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf.

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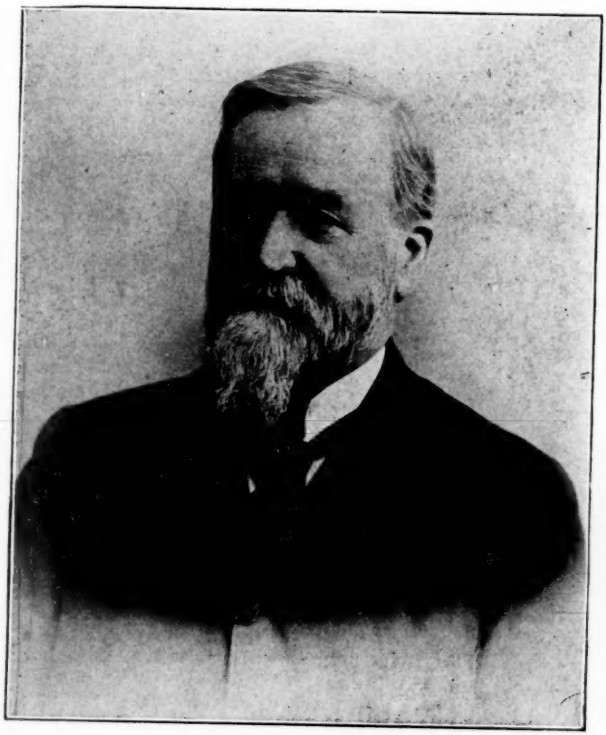
GILBERT OTIS FAY.
1834–1910.



WILLIAM H. DE MOTTE.
1830–1910.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

VOL. LV, No. 2.

MARCH, 1910.

THE FUTURE OF THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN AMERICA.*

To bring any important question fairly into the open field of debate is always a long step toward its final adjustment. It is across that field that the question must go to be so purged of its irrelevancies, misinterpretations, and misuses, personal, partisan, or illogical, and so clarified and simplified as to make it easy for the popular mind to take practical and final action on it and settle it once for all by settling it *right*. It is in this field that the question before us forces itself to the front as a living and urgent national question.

Turning aside from the more ephemeral partisan media of the daily newspaper, let us look to the philosophical investigation of the question exactly as it presents itself to us in the desire to help it along toward its final solution by aiding to make it clearer and simpler than it was before.

The education of the deaf to-day is less understood than any other department of the great educational system of this country.

It is not my purpose at this time to explain to you how the deaf are educated; suffice it to say that many of the

*An address delivered at the Fifth Semi-Annual Conference of Superintendents of State Institutions of Kansas, held at Topeka, February 9, 1910.

adult deaf of this country *are* educated and the younger generation is being educated. No longer does the philosopher proclaim, "To instruct the deaf no art can ever reach, No care improve them and no wisdom teach." Nor does the priest condemn them to everlasting perdition by quoting from the tenth chapter of Romans; "So then faith cometh by hearing, and hearing by the word of God." No, let us hurry past the thought of such ignorance and superstition and turn at once to America, where the first school for the deaf was started less than a hundred years ago. * * *

Concurrent with the material advancement of our country has been her progress in educational affairs and in no branch of science or education has there been greater progress than in the education of the deaf. Until comparatively recent years, the addresses and papers at the National Educational Association have been on history, philosophy, language, and literature. Now the educators of our great country are calling attention to the need of industrial education. In doing this they are following in the wake of the educators of the deaf, who were unquesquestionably the pioneers in this movement, the pathfinders in educational progress, whose schools have been established on the basic principle that the essence of all training is action, being able to do something, and to do it in the very best manner; and, further, that the fundamental basis of all good citizenship is a trained intelligence which will enable the individual to earn a living and become a self-supporting member of society. It must be gratifying, indeed, to the pioneer educators of the deaf to see the entire country aroused to the crying need of industrial education for which they have been contending for half a century.

A recital, in detail, of our educational progress would be to lead you into fields already gleaned and along paths you may have trod. My purpose is to look into the future.

Some of the problems that have confronted the educator of the deaf have been solved; others are now in the process of solution. It is especially to the latter that I wish to call your attention.

About two years ago the educated deaf and their friends throughout the country were making an aggressive campaign against the ruling of the Civil Service Commission by which deaf persons were refused the right to take examinations for positions which they could fill and were filling at the time. Such a storm of indignant protests was aroused that the ear of the President was finally reached and he ordered a reversal of the decision, giving all deaf persons the right to compete for positions in the governmental service where deafness was no bar. This is all that the deaf want or that we who are interested in them are asking for. We simply want to see them have a "square deal."

In this connection I would like to ask: Is it fair to the deaf, who are already handicapped by Providence, for man to place a still greater handicap upon them by classifying them with the penal, correctional, and charitable institutions of the State? Nobody that knows anything about our Institution would think of classifying it as penal or correctional, but it is often surprising to find out how little is known about it by the general public. A messenger boy who had an important message to deliver to a State school for the deaf met a couple of teachers going away from the Institution. He asked them if any of the "dummies" were running around loose about the building. When assured that he would not be hurt and would find some one in the office to whom he could deliver the message he took courage and pressed forward.

A few years ago there appeared in flashing headlines in one of the great daily newspapers of Minneapolis the information, "A Deaf Man found on the Streets!

Evidently escaped from the Asylum at Faribault!" Whereas the fact developed that he was an ignoramus who had never attended the School and could write but very few words. That was the reason that he had attracted so much attention. One hundred educated deaf persons might have been upon the streets of that great city at the same time and nobody would have noticed them.

The origin of this stigma in classification may be due to the fact that the first school for the deaf was called an "asylum" and many of the State schools were so called when first organized; but the word "asylum" has now been changed to "school" by legislative enactment in nearly all the States.

A short time ago, when a gentleman asked what kind of an institution was located at Olathe, he was told it was the State School for the Deaf. He replied that he thought the deaf and the dumb were all in the same institution. He did not know that they had been separated.

Our people are not dumb. Every one has a voice and the majority of them know how to use it. The only reason that all of them do not talk is because they have no hearing to guide them in their articulation and therefore the speech of the deaf is somewhat mechanical. Many of them know that their voices do not sound natural and being rather sensitive do not often speak to strangers for that reason.

With this digression, let us again take up the subject of classification. Every normal child is entitled to a free education. We do not have to pay to send our children to the public schools nor to the high school. Not even in the large cities, where the poor children are furnished with breakfast, does any one think of calling our public schools charitable. Then, in the interests of fairness, why should any one look upon the deaf of the State as objects of charity and speak of our School as a charitable institution? All that we ask for them is a free education—the same that the normal

child receives. If, because of their deafness, special instruction is required by trained teachers, and it is cheaper for the State to collect all the deaf children into one school and give them their board in addition to what is done for their more fortunate hearing brothers, why is the one any more an object of charity than the other? Not only that; the classification creates a prejudice in the public mind which it is almost impossible to eradicate. We should not let this matter pass by simply saying that the taxpayers of the State do not care whether the deaf and the blind are classed as charitable or educational so long as it makes no difference in their taxes. We want them to care. We want the taxpayers to know the difference between a charitable and an educational institution, and when they know the truth, "the truth shall make them free"—free from the prejudice of public opinion; free from the thought of having to seek a position, the duties of which the deaf are well qualified to fill, with the feeling that they are objects of charity and that if given a job it is simply because of sympathy. They do not want sympathy. They want an opportunity to prove their fitness for the positions sought. Remove this barrier to progress, as has already been done in several other States, and place our School among the educational institutions of the State where it properly belongs, with the University, Agricultural College, and Normal School, and you have given the deaf of the State an even chance in the battle of life to make good.

Here is a class of people, the majority of whom lost their hearing in childhood through some serious illness, and are therefore to be branded for life by the general public as freaks, and, without protest, and apparently with the sanction of our legislators, they are allowed to be classed with the insane and criminals. This was undoubtedly due to lack of knowledge, but can the men who are especially interested in their welfare survey the situation and by their

acquiescence pronounce existing conditions good? We leave the answer to our statesmen and men of public authority. Our duty is with what is practicable now; with the next step possible in our day and generation.

It is criminal to waste our energies in trying to uproot, when all that we can profitably or possibly accomplish is to bend the universal tree of knowledge a little in the direction most favorable to the production of good fruit under existing circumstances.

Public sentiment is quick to know and to feel what offends it. The verdict rests with the best and most enlightened. Our statesmen will surely judge and their judgments will not often be wrong.

Another annoyance which is a handicap to the highest mental, moral, and physical progress is the problem of the feeble-minded deaf.

In order to secure information as to the status of the feeble-minded deaf in America the following questions were sent out to the heads of fifty-five Institutions in the United States and Canada:

First.—Has your State made any special provision for the care or education of the feeble-minded deaf?

Second.—About how many feeble-minded deaf does your State contain?

Third.—Are these children cared for at your school or at the feeble-minded institution?

Fourth.—What in your opinion should be done with this class of persons?

Forty-five replies were received and forty-five answered "No" to the first question. To the second question, nearly all answered "No data."

As to where such children were cared for, without exception the answer to the third question was "At the feeble-minded institution if anywhere."

A summary of the answers to the fourth question would

be that they should be cared for at the feeble-minded institution.

Superintendent L. E. Milligan, of Montana, who has the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded all together at the same Institution, replied that "feeble-mindedness is a better classification than deafness."

Superintendent J. W. Jones, of Ohio, sent an extract from his biennial report relating to the feeble-minded deaf, dated November 15, 1909, in which he says:

"There are two classes of feeble-minded children applying in large numbers for admission to this school whose parents insist upon their being considered deaf and insist upon their admission. The first is the hearing feeble-minded who have not learned to talk and the second is the deaf feeble-minded. It has been the policy of the school all these years to give the benefit of the doubt to all children, and many of the latter class have been admitted from year to year. The school also has taken on trial almost every year one or more of the former. Evidently those who have failed to learn to talk because they are feeble-minded belong to the school for feeble-minded children. There may be some question as to whether the school for feeble-minded children or the school for the deaf should open its doors to the feeble-minded deaf. There are enough of them in the State to make a school of their own with an attendance of approximately one hundred. Many of them are unable to care for themselves, are offensive in their habits, and in no way suitable to be classed with bright and reasonably bright deaf children whose habits are tidy and whose appearance is normal. This class has been a matter of concern to all superintendents of the deaf schools throughout our country. I feel it, therefore, my duty to recommend that the feeble-minded deaf be classified by themselves and provision be made for them in a special building in connection with the school for feeble-minded youth and altogether under its control. Had we the room for additional buildings where proper segregation could be had, I should be glad to have provision made for them in connection with this school; but situated as we are, on ten acres of land, half of which is covered with buildings, it is out of the question."

The development of the Juvenile Court in the larger cities, with its effective corps of workers, is bringing to light a great many desperate and pitiful cases such as we have described and for which the State has made no provision.

This Court appeals to this School to render assistance, which it gladly does when the children are eligible to admission. The determining questions are "Is the child deaf? Has it sufficient mentality to learn? Is it able to care for itself?" In other words, "Is it fit to be a pupil or is it an object simply of charitable care?" There are a great many of the latter. In fact, in due time the number of these children discovered through the industry of the Juvenile Court may far exceed the number estimated above. This School was established for the education of the deaf. It is the only school to which the large majority of the parents of deaf children can send them. Is it right that these children, in every way entitled to the privileges of the School, should be compelled to live with a class of children offensive in appearance and in habits? All parents, whether of deaf children or not, will answer "No."

No legislature has as yet made any provision, then, for the care and maintenance of the feeble-minded deaf. Some valuable suggestions have been offered as possible solutions of the problem, such as those just cited, for instance, but none has been acted upon. A suggestion from one superintendent was that some central State should establish a school, under competent management, and that the other States should pay for the care of their respective children.

In the solution of this problem there is now an opportunity for genuine philanthropy. Here is a class of persons who may be classed as "charitable" without offending the dignity of the deaf person who is normal in appearance. It is quite evident that they do not belong in a school for the deaf any more than a hearing feeble-minded child should be allowed to attend the public schools.

We do not object to receiving the dull and backward deaf child; no, we have infinite patience with him; but a child who is not capable of receiving any kind of instruction and is in constant need of custodial care we refuse to accept.

It may be argued that he should not be sent to the feeble-minded institution on the ground that he is deaf. Then what is the proper solution of the problem? In addition to the suggestion of Superintendent Jones that a special appropriation be made for the care of the feeble-minded deaf at the institution for feeble-minded children, I would like to add that a sufficient sum be included in that appropriation for a competent instructor who understands the best methods for teaching the deaf.

Mr. J. A. McIlvaine, Jr., of Philadelphia, quotes from Dr. E. R. Johnstone, Superintendent of the New Jersey Training School for Feeble-Minded, who says:

"Feeble-mindedness is a condition, not a disease, and is incurable. Feeble-minded children cannot be trained for life in the world. They may be self-supporting, but not self-directing. They are capable of a high grade of manual work and often excel in certain lines of training. Under the wise direction of an institution they can do almost all manner of farm and household work; make mats, mattresses, clothing, and carpets, and care for their more helpless associates."*

We refused admission and weeded out eight or ten children this past year on the ground that they were feeble-minded, but the applications from such persons should not be ignored. There ought to be a suitable place for them and I would like to urge the importance of doing something for them and doing it at the first opportunity. Here is a chance where our State may take the initiative in the solution of this important question. * * * When you have done this, you have relieved the deaf who are normal in intellect of a most serious handicap and their future education may be pushed forward untrammelled and keep pace with the progress of our great State in other directions.

CYRUS E. WHITE,
Superintendent of the Kansas School,
Olathe, Kansas.

*For further discusion of the feeble-minded deaf see Mr. McIlvaine's article in the *Annals* for last November (vol. liv, pp. 444–450).

THE SIGN LANGUAGE. A MANUAL OF SIGNS.*—VIII.

Countries and Nationalities.

Note: The sign given usually (unless otherwise specified) indicates the country. To indicate the inhabitant or individual follow with the sign for "-er" as in occupations indicating the person, *i. e.*, with the palms toward self draw them against the body.

Nation.—Place the end of the fingers of the right "N" hand upon the back of the left "S" hand, withdraw them, describe a circle above the hand and let the fingers again rest on the left hand.

America, signifying *The Union.*—With palms toward self, lock the ends of the fingers of the "5" hands so they are crossed, one above the other (like rails on a fence), and drawing the hands toward the left, swing them around the front in a semicircle to the right side. Or,

(2) With the right "A" hand, thumb up, describe a circle on the back of the left hand.

The United States.—Holding the "U" hand out give it a circular motion and then follow with "S" in a similar motion.

England.—Reach the right hand across the back of the left open hand and grasp the fleshy part of the hand (so the right palm rests on the back of the left hand) and draw it toward self.

Scotland.—Bring the "5" hands up in front, palms toward self, the palm of the right hand resting against the back of the left in such a way that the fingers of both hands cross

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at an angle representing an "X;" let the hands drop away toward the sides. Note that the fingers when thus held represent the plaid.

Ireland.—With the right "V" hand at rest just above the back of the left "S" hand, describe a circle around it with the "V" and then bring the end of the "V" down on the back of the left.

France.—Holding out the "F" hand well toward the left, draw it across in front of self from left to right, giving the hand a twist meanwhile so the hand is changed from a position of thumb on top to palm down.

Germany.—Cross the hands in front, diagonally, so the wrist of the right "5" hand rests upon the wrist of the left and work the fingers of both hands.

Holland.—Place the thumb of the "Y" hand, pointing outward, against the mouth, and draw it downward a distance and then out, representing the long stem and bowl of a pipe.

Denmark.—Describe a circle with the "D" hand in front of the forehead.

Norway.—Describe a motion with the "N" hand in front of the forehead.

Sweden.—Describe a circle with the "S" hand in front of the forehead.

Spain.—Lock the forefingers of the "G" hands under the chin.

Italy.—With the little finger of the "I" hand trace a cross upon the centre of the forehead.

Rome.—Place the ends of the fingers of the "N" hand against the centre of the forehead; lift it away and bring it down, placing it upon the end of the nose. Note that the ends of the fingers trace the outline of the prominent nose.

Greece.—Place the forefinger of the "G" hand upon the nose, pointing upward, letting the knuckle rest between the eyes, and then draw the finger down the length of

nose. Note that this indicates the straight nose of the Greek.

Turkey.—Place the closed "C" hand a little above the forehead, thus representing the crescent.

Switzerland.—Place the end of the right "B" hand against the forehead; withdraw it, twist the hand around so the palm is out and strike the side of the head with the back of the hand.

Russia.—Place the "C" hands against the opposite sides of the waist.

Egypt.—Place the end of the open right hand on the end of the nose; withdraw it, describe circle above the nose, and bring the end of the hand at rest on the nose as at first.

Africa.—Place the end of the forefinger of the right "G" hand upon the end of the nose, withdraw and describe a circle above it and bring to rest again as at first.

Negro.—Place the fingers of the "N" hand upon the end of the nose, and rock it from side to side with a twisting motion.

Europe.—Describe a circle before the face with the right "E" hand.

Asia, China.—Place the ends of the forefingers of the "G" hands, one at the corner of either eye, and push upward a little, giving the eyes an almond shape. Or simply place the end of the forefinger on the temple and twist it once or twice.

Canada.—Grasp the coat lapel (or an imaginary lapel) with the right hand and give it a little shake.

North America.—Make "N," then "A," giving the hands a shaking or circular motion.

South America.—Same with "S" and "A."

New England.—Pass the "E" hand across the length of the palm of the open left hand from the finger end to the palm.

New York.—Pass the "Y" hand across the length of the left palm from the heel to the finger ends.

Washington (both the man and the city).—Place the end of the right "W" hand on the right shoulder; bring it out and give it a circular motion up and down.

Chicago.—Give the "C" hand a shaking motion, or circle through the air with it.

California.—This State is sometimes indicated by the sign for "gold," *i. e.*, pinch the lobe of the right ear and bring the "Y" hand out and give it a twisting, shaking motion. Or, leaving the ear, have the "Y" hand, after making a twisting motion, strike the palm of the left hand.

Indian.—Place the end of the thumb and forefinger of the closed "O" hand on the end of the nose and then carry it around and place it similarly against the ear.

Jew.—Placing the fingers of the bent "5" hand on the chin, draw them down and off, letting the hand assume the "&" position as it leaves the chin.

NOTE: Cities like Philadelphia, Baltimore, Omaha, etc., are indicated locally by use of the initial letter, usually giving it a twisting or shaking motion. Only the few larger cities have such a recognized sign throughout the country. But locally nearly all cities have their signs.

PREPOSITIONS.

Against.—Strike the palm of the left hand with the end of the right "B" hand, holding the left hand so the right is thrown straight outward toward the left.

About.—Hold the left "&" hand out, pointing to the right, and around it circle the forefinger of the right "G" hand, pointing to the left.

NOTE: *About* in sense of "almost" or "nearly" is signed like these words, as the signs always stand for the idea and not the word itself.

Above.—Touch the back of the open left hand, pointing outward toward the right, with the end of the open right; lift the latter away, and holding it still flatwise, let it describe a circle in the air. And,

(2) In the sense of "more than:" Place the end of the right bent hand, palm down, on the end of the open left hand, the right several inches above the left, drawing it first a little toward you and then directly above its original position. Note that you indicate an excess.

Across, Over.—Holding the left "B" hand out, palm down and pointing toward the right, pass the right "B" hand edgewise across the back of the left.

Among.—Hold the left bent "5" hand in front with the fingers pointing upward; with the forefinger of the right "G" hand pointing down move it in and out among the fingers of the left.

Around.—Hold the left "&" hand pointing upward and circle it several times with the forefinger of the right "G" hand pointing down.

At.—Strike the back of the left "B" hand, pointing upward, with the right "B" hand.

Before (in time).—See preceding pages.

Before (in place).—Hold the open hands pointing upward, in front, one on right side, one on left, palm toward palm, and 5 or 6 inches apart; turn both hands at the same time, carrying the left to the front and the right toward self, still keeping them palm to palm.

After (in time).—See preceding pages.

After (in place).—Same as "behind;" see below.

Behind.—Place the "A" hands in front, one on the right side and the other on the left, thumbs pointing upward; bring the right hand toward self around behind the left, the latter remaining stationary.

Below.—Hold the right open hand under the left, palms of both down; move the right around in a circle.

Under.—(If stationary). With the left open hand, palm down, in front, and right "A" hand between it and self, let the right hand pass down under the left. Or place the "A" hand under the left and describe a circle with it.

Under.—(If in motion). Same position and movement, but carry the right hand completely under the left and let the thumb come up above its edge.

Near.—Hold the bent hands over at the right side, the left on the inside and the right beyond a few inches, the palms of both toward self; draw the right hand toward the left but do not let the hands touch.

Beside.—Hold the "A" hands in front, one beside the other, thumbs pointing upward.

Beside (more).—Hold the left "&" hand in front pointing toward the right; bring the end of the right "&" hand to meet the end of the left, lifting it from a position in front toward the right side and then to meet the left.

Between.—Hold the left "C" hand in front, the opening up, and between the thumb and forefinger place the right "B" hand held edgewise; let the right hand move from side to side between the thumb and forefinger, striking first one and then the other.

Except, But.—Holding the left "G" hand in front with the forefinger pointing upward, grasp it with the thumb and forefinger of the right "G" hand, lifting it a little.

But (as a conjunction).—Cross the ends of the forefingers of the "G" hands pointing outward, and draw them apart, toward the sides.

By.—Hold the "A" hands in front, side by side, the right a little higher than the left; bend both hands toward the left, twisting them from the wrists, so the thumbs point over toward the left.

During, While.—See preceding pages.

For.—Place the end of the forefinger of the right "G"

hand at the right side of the forehead; with a twisting motion to the hand bring it down and, pointing the forefinger straight out, push it forward some distance.

From.—Crook the forefinger of the right "G" hand, and place its middle joint thus crooked against the side of the forefinger of the left "G" hand, pointing upward (K of the double-hand alphabet), and draw it away toward self.

In.—Place the right "&" hand downward into the left "O" hand.

Into.—Holding the left open hand out in front, palm down, and pointing toward the right, push the right "B" hand, palm down, from toward self down and under the left.

Of.—Hold the right "B" hand out forward from the side, pointing outward, and held edgewise; drawing the elbow slightly back, turn the hand palm down with a twisting motion; then continue to twist it until the palm is toward the right and as it assumes this position push the hand slightly toward the right and front. This sign indicates the idea of possession to some extent. Or,

(2) Hold the right "G" hand out straight from the side, pointing outward; give it a turning, twisting motion toward the inside, so the back of the hand is turned up; the forefinger describes a peculiar arch over from left to right. Or,

(3) Hold out the right "O" hand straight from the side and somewhat elevated; twisting it with a downward motion outward bring it into the position of "F."

On.—Lay the right open hand upon the back of the left.

Upon.—Lift the right hand to the position as above.

Off.—Having placed the right open hand upon the back of the left, throw, or let it fall off.

Out.—Place the right "5" hand, pointing upward, in the left "C;" let it drop down and out of the left, the latter closing over it to "O" hand.

Out of.—(Away from). Placing the right "5" hand in the left "C," pointing it downward, lift it upward and out toward the front, and close the left hand under it to "O." For *Out of* in sense of "gone" see that word.

Through.—Push the right "B" hand edgewise outward between the middle and third fingers of the left, which are open and closed over against the forefinger and little finger respectively, and pointing upward.

Till.—Holding the forefinger of the left "G" hand in front, pointing upward, palm to self, push the forefinger of the right "G" hand outward to and touching it, but let the right hand move slowly, and describe an arch over from self to the forefinger. Or,

(2) Move the bent forefinger of the right "G" hand, palm down, forward a short distance and then drop it.

To.—Same motion, but move the right forefinger straight to the left with an upward motion.

Toward.—Same motion, but not touching the left forefinger.

With.—Hold the "A" hands side by side together, thumbs up, moving them forward together a little.

Without.—First sign "with," then let the hands drop away toward the sides, opening the while.

Like.—Same as for "same," see preceding pages.

Miscellaneous.

Why.—Place the end of the open right hand on the head, above the right eye; bring it forward and downward, the hand as it drops assuming "Y" position.

Because.—Place the end of the forefinger of the right "L" hand at the forehead, above the right eye; draw the hand away to the side, assuming the position of "A," and then raise the hand on a level with the top of the head. The hand is sometimes given a peculiar twisting motion.

As.—With the forefingers of the "G" hands extending outward, place the hands over toward the right, parallel, and then carry them over to the left side where they assume a similar position.

If, Whether.—Bring the "F" hands up in front and balance them up and down like the pans of a pair of scales.

Proportion.—Same as in "as" but use the "P" hands.

Money.—Strike the left open palm with the back of the right "&" hand several times.

Bills.—Draw the left hand edgewise between the thumb and fingers of the right hand. This sign also signifies "Dollars."

Very.—Place the "V" hands near together, palm to palm, and draw apart toward the sides.

Policeman.—Place the right hand to the left side to indicate a star.

Jail.—Cross the fingers of the right "4" hand across those of the left.

House.—Place the ends of the open hands together in the shape of a roof.

Town, City.—Repeat the sign for "house" a number of times, moving the hands here and there or from side to side.

Things.—Placing the right "&" hand over toward the left, palm up, draw it toward the right, dropping the hand continuously.

Bone (or anything hard like porcelain, etc).—Strike the front teeth with the end of the forefinger of the right hand.

Dish.—Sign for "bone," then with the ends of the hands together draw them toward self in a curve, bringing the heels together and thus indicating the round shape of a dish.

Knife.—Whittle against the left forefinger with the right "H" hand.

Fork.—Make a fork with the right "V" hand and "stab" it against the left palm.

Spoon.—Imitate the use of a spoon with the right "H" hand.

Road.—Holding the open hands palm to palm and pointing forward, carry them forward as if they represented the sides of a road.

Fence.—Lock the ends of the "5" hands and place at the side, then draw apart.

Rubber.—Strike the upper teeth from below with the end of the thumb of the right "A" hand, carrying the hand outward.

Watch.—Make motion of drawing a watch from the pocket and carrying it to the ear.

Democrat.—Shake the right "D" hand.

Republican.—Shake the right "R" hand.

Room.—Represent the four sides of a room, first by placing the hands on opposite sides, and then opposite in front; in the first the hands are palm to palm and in the last the palm of the right, being farthest out, is toward the back of the left.

Chair.—Point the forefingers of the "G" hands down, holding the hands apart the distance of the legs; carry the hands back and represent the hind legs and then sign "sit."

Table.—Same, but finish by drawing the hands, palms down, apart to represent the top of a table.

Key.—Twist the crooked forefinger of the right "G" hand in the centre of the left palm.

Soap.—Draw the end of the right open hand downward against the palm of the open left.

Humbug.—Place the bent hands one against the back of the other in front, palms toward self, and bend both hands together downward, bending from the knuckle joints.

Door.—Place the open hands edge to edge, pointing upward; swing the right hand away from the left and bring it back again.

Flag.—Hold the right forearm pointing up, supported on the left hand, and bending the hand from the wrist, wave it.

Basket.—Placing the right "G" hand under the wrist of the left, carry it in a semicircle to the elbow.

Fire.—Holding the bent hands, fingers pointing upward, move first one hand and then the other upward, wiggle the fingers, thus representing the flames.

Hay.—Push the right "4" hand upward in front of or against the mouth.

Barn.—Sign "hay house."

Deaf-mute.—Place the end of the forefinger of the right "G" hand at the right ear and then carry it around and place it against the mouth.

Principle.—Throw the right "P" hand against the upheld palm of the open left hand.

Conscience.—Holding the right "G" hand just above the right side of the head, end of finger pointing toward the right temple, let the hand drop toward the head but not touching it. Repeat several times.

Machine.—Lock the fingers of the bent "C" hands in imitation of the cogs of corresponding wheels and rock them together several times in imitation of wheels turning together.

Personal signs.—Signs are frequently given to individuals, which in conversation are used instead of spelling out the person's name. The following will suffice for illustrations:

Rev. T. H. Gallaudet.—Place the "G" hand at the right eye, the forefinger above and the thumb immediately below; draw the hand away toward the right and as the hand leaves the head bring the ends of the forefinger and thumb together.

Dr. E. M. Gallaudet.—Place the right "M" hand against the left side of the chest near the shoulder, the ends of the

fingers touching the body; draw the hand to the right side of the chest to a similar position.

Counting.

1 *to* 10.—Begin by holding up the forefinger for 1; then two fingers for 2; for 3 bring up the thumb with the two fingers; for 4 draw back the thumb against the palm and hold up the four fingers, and for 5 the fingers and thumb. For 6, while the other fingers are extended, draw down the end of the little finger against the end of the thumb; for 7 draw down the third finger same, and for 8 and 9 the middle and forefinger respectively. Note that only one finger touches the thumb at a time, all the remaining fingers being extended. For 10, hold up the thumb of the "A" hand and shake it from side to side with a twisting motion from the wrist but not moving the arm, or, extending the thumb of the "A" hand toward the left, give it a twisting jerk toward the left (not moving the arm) until it points upward.

11 *to* 20.—Make 10 as described in last line and then add all the other digits up to 9. In common practice this is shortened and instead of making the full sign for 10 the forefinger is extended from under the thumb of "A" hand as if forcibly released for 11, and the same with the two fingers for 12; for 13 the two fingers and thumb are thrown out straight with the twisting motion of 10; for 14 the fingers are thrown out and the thumb drawn down quickly against the palm; for 5 the whole hand is thrown open; and for 16, 17, 18, and 19 the hand is closed as in "A" and the fingers are thrown out into the positions for the figures, the hand at first always being in position of "A." For 20 the position of the right hand is as in "G," except that the thumb and forefinger have been drawn farther apart and the palm is down; move the hand

to the right with a slight jerk and close the ends of the thumb and forefinger. In common practice the thumb and forefinger in position as above are simply snapped together.

21 *to* 30.—In the twenties, begin the motion with the "L" hand, palm outward; throw the hand toward the right with a jerk and then add the numbers 1 to 9. The jerk is not essential but is advisable as it adds distinctness to the figures. This is especially true of figures above 50. For 30 make 3; then jerk hand to right and make cipher with the ends of the thumb and fingers brought to a point.

31 *to* 40.—Make 3; jerk hand to the right and add the figures as above. For 40 make 4; then jerk to right and make cipher for "0."

41 *to* 50.—Make 4; then jerk hand to right and add figures as above. For 50 make 5 and then "0," the jerk always being part of the movement.

In 60, 70, 80, and 90 the figures 6, 7, 8, and 9 are first made and then simply jerked to the right, the cipher already being made by the end of the finger against the thumb. Some again draw the ends of the fingers together, but the above method is preferable as being the more correct.

In adding the figures to 6, 7, 8, and 9, the jerk should not be omitted, for unless it is done great confusion is experienced, the difference between 69 and 96, between 85 and 58, etc., not being clear.

For 100 make 1 and then "C;" for 200 and so on make the figures and add "C." Above these add the figures as made before.

For 1,000, 2,000, etc., make the prime figure, then strike the palm of the open left hand with the end of the right "M" or simply with the bent right hand. Above these add the figures as made before.

For 1,000,000, 2,000,000, etc., make the prime figure, then strike the left palm as in thousand but twice instead

of only once. Billion is expressed by striking the palm three times; trillion, four times.

For the fractions, make the numerator, then, lowering the hand quickly, make the denominator. To add distinctness it may be advisable to draw the fractional line in the air with the finger.

For the ordinals make the usual figure sign, then give the hand a twisting jerk from the wrist, not moving the hand or arm from its position.

Arithmetic.—Hold the "V" hands pointing upward, the palms toward self; throw the right hand toward the left, and the left toward the right so they meet and cross, the back of the right "V" passing against the palm of the left "V." Repeat the motion several times.

Multiply.—Made the same as for "arithmetic," but the motion made but once instead of being repeated several times.

Add.—Hold the left "&" hand pointing up and rather low; upon its end place the end of the right "&" hand pointing down; move both hands upward, lifting the right hand and striking it against the left several times as they rise.

Subtract.—Holding the open left hand with palm toward self, strike the ends of the fingers of the right bent hand against its palm and drop the right hand down away from the left, as if taking something away from it.

Divide.—(Long division). With the forefingers of the "G" hands trace in the air the two right angles placed at either side of the dividend.

For short division, beginning with the end of the thumb of the left "L" hand trace the length of the thumb and forefinger with the end of the forefinger of the right "G" hand, thus indicating the right angle placed under the dividend.

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SCHOOL FARMING: AS A CRAFT AND AS A DISCIPLINE.

THE conception of industrial training in our schools for the deaf has undergone an evolutionary development parallel with the growth and the changes which have marked the progress of the communities in which these schools are placed, and with the growth of the general conception of education among the teaching profession and in the community at large.

At first a few of the simpler mechanical trades were attempted under instructors capable, for the most part, only of imparting through imitation some dexterity in the handling of tools and a degree of familiarity with the rudimentary processes of the art.

Later, the principle came to be felt that all the work included in the prescribed course of a school ought to be so conducted as to have a distinct educational value. Accordingly, the old-fashioned "shop-work" gave place to "manual training," in which the first aim was to quicken the brain, while training the hand of the pupil and the immediate practical value of the work done were distinctly secondary.

At present the tendency seems to be to work toward a system which shall combine the merits of the two earlier ones; which shall teach the pupil to think and shall give him an intellectual interest in his work, while at the same time it shall, not merely in a general way but directly, fit him for his place as a bread-winner in this age of intense competition and of extreme specialization. This tendency, I think, is apparent in the framing of the industrial courses in some of our largest and best institutions, and this seemed to be the trend of the discussion of the subject in last summer's Convention.

The diversifying and specializing of the industrial curriculum in our schools, adapting the courses in each to the special needs of its own community, is a logical result of this tendency of thought. This idea is admirably worked out in one, at least, of our leading institutions, which, with its large number of residents, and its array of commodious buildings, is in itself a good-sized village—or rather, a miniature "quarter" of a model, up-to-date city. Here the best-paid trades that minister to the bodily needs of the residents, and which are needed in the construction, maintenance, and repair of the costly buildings, are taught by men and women who are able and are required to show not only manual dexterity but mental development in their pupils as a result of their teaching. As a consesequence, the graduates of that school are fitted to step at once, on leaving school, into places waiting for them in the great city at their doors, and perhaps, in time, to rise as a class above their average fellow-workmen, by reason of their higher training in intelligence as well as in manual skill.

Now in many of our smaller institutions, in the south especially, it seems to me that the same principle may be successfully applied, while the application must be altogether different.

We are placed among essentially agricultural communities. Not only do a majority of our boys come from the farms, but their best interests demand that they shall stay there. It would seem, then, that farming ought to be an important part of our school industrial training, but, for various reasons, it has not generally received so much attention as it merits.

In the first place, there is very little need of teaching the use of farm tools and the ordinary processes of farm work. To plow, to hoe, to pick cotton, our older boys know—at least, as such work is done on the average farm—

without any of our teaching. Then, too, our school term does not hold through the crop-making season, so they would lose a large part of the course. And not all our schools, perhaps, have or can get land enough for an experimental farm.

Something, however, has been done by some of our schools in this line, but, so far as we have seen, none of them have published accounts of their methods and results; and it is more in the hope of "drawing the fire" of these schools, and so of learning how much better they have done than we have, that I venture to recount the modest experiments and the limited but, as I think, encouraging success attained in the Alabama Institution during the last season.

About a year ago a movement was started by a number of the most widely informed and most public-spirited men in our State, looking to the education of the farming community in improved methods of agriculture, especially in the raising of corn. Our Principal conceived the plan of having a vacant plot of about an acre and a half on our school grounds cultivated by our pupils for this purpose. As most of the boys who would take up this work were in my class, he proposed to me that I should see to the literary side of this work, having each pupil keep an accurate account of the work done, read and master the necessary literature, and explain the processes, so far as these differed from the usual practice with which, as above mentioned, they were already familiar. Fortunately, we were able to secure the enthusiastic assistance, gratuitously rendered, of Hon. J. M. Thornton, one of the leading experts of this State in scientific agriculture, and a warm friend of our school.

It was decided to plant the field in corn and to divide it into three plots, each plot to be cultivated on a different plan, representing the varying views of different experts. A class in agriculture was formed, under the name of

the "Farmers' Club," having its own officers and its appointed meetings.

The seed corn was carefully selected and was tested for germination by the club members, at their meetings, according to the approved methods.

The land is a stiff red clay, capable of being made very productive, but, at the time when it was taken in hand, in bad condition. It lies so that it is unusually wet, and, having been neglected for a good many years, the soil was choked with weeds and was packed almost as hard as a beaten road. Of course, if it had been intended the fall previous to plant it in the coming spring, it would have had a deep fall plowing.

The season last spring being unusually wet, the preparation of the soil and the planting were necessarily done at a great disadvantage, and as the heavy rains lasted well into the summer, proper cultivation was impossible. Moreover, owing to the unusually wet, cold season, and to the unfavorable condition of the soil, the "bud-worm" was destructive to an unheard-of degree—only forty per cent. of a perfect stand being secured.

The plowing, planting, and first cultivation were done by the boys of the "Farmers' Club" before the close of the school term on the nineteenth of May, and the crop was harvested after the re-opening of school in the fall. In spite of the untoward conditions, the interest of the boys in the work in hand, and in the general subject of corn culture and of improved farming, kept up without flagging.

On taking account of the season's work we found that under the conditions of exceptional difficulty which have been described, we had made a crop of something over thirty bushels to the acre only, where we had expected to make at least sixty. But comparing the result with thirteen bushels to the acre, which is shown by Government reports to be the average yield in this State, we

consider it proved that the methods we followed were sound, and, if persisted in, would ultimately yield perfectly satisfactory results. For the next year our Principal plans the laying of tile drains through the field (which for lack of drainage is a peculiarly refractory piece of land), the cement tiles to be made and laid, under skilled direction, by the boys themselves.

The ground has been plowed deep this fall, the stalks plowed under to furnish humus. The almost unprecedentedly bad weather of the early summer prevented all proper tillage, so that we were unable to test the merits of the different methods of cultivation, and no decided difference in the yield of the several plots was observed.

The space at our command—about an acre and a half—we regard as sufficient to enable us to raise three or four different crops at a time on a scale large enough to give practical pecuniary results. By so doing, we can also practice the necessary rotation of crops.

Further details of our season's work would be out of place here—indeed, I may very likely have already given more than fits an article of this kind—but it is worth insisting on that all these, and a hundred others that came up from time to time, were of intense interest to the boys as they noted them in the field, and afterwards when they came to record them in their much prized "Farm Journals." Moreover, these observations and records prompted the boys to ask and to search for themselves after further printed information on these and other allied points.

Such information they found in various agricultural papers, in the bulletins of our State Agricultural Experiment Station, in the various pamphlets and leaflets published by the United States Department of Agriculture, and in the excellently selected public library of our little town. All these sources, by the way, with the exception of the last, are at the command of any school that may

decide to take up this kind of work. I would especially mention, as a rich source of the most practical and at the same time scientifically reliable information, Bailey's Cyclopædia of Agriculture.

Besides furnishing its own publications gratuitously, the State and National authorities will, on application, give any advice needed, and, if the farmers of the vicinity can be induced to co-operate, it will generally be possible to have a Government expert visit the place and direct the cultivation of the several crops after scientific testing of the soil.

Perhaps the marked interest shown by the boys in this farm work may have been, to a certain extent, a result of certain school-room work previously done in this Institution. Some years ago, reflecting on the need of doing something to turn the thoughts of our country boys back to the farms, I, with the approval of the Principal, discarded the arithmetic text-book with the familiar problems about the hare and the greyhound, the hogshead with the small waste-pipe and the large supply-pipe, its three rules for partial payments, and so on.

With the aid of the Station Bulletins and other literature, I worked up a set of problems involving all the arithmetical principles that I thought my pupils would ever need to use, and all directed to show the advantages of scientific over rule-of-thumb farming.

Perhaps a sample will show what I mean.

"A farmer planted two plots—A and B—each 36 x 121 ft. in corn. Plot A was planted with unselected seed; Plot B with seed of a choice variety, carefully selected and tested for germination." (This process, as above mentioned, the pupils had themselves put into practice.) "Under similar conditions of fertilization and tillage, Plot A yielded 4 bu., 3 pks., and Plot B, 5 bu., 1 pk., 4 qts. If corn is worth 75 cents a bushel, how much more would a crop

from a ten-acre field be worth at the same rate as that of Plot B than at that of Plot A?" The answer works out, as may easily be seen, at $46.88—a sum which looks pretty large to a man working a one-mule or a two-mule farm. Moreover, as it happens, I had lately the pleasure of hearing a practical farmer, in a public address, give almost the same figures as the result actually reached in regular farm practice in this county by the use of the methods indicated.

Similarly, the value of alfalfa and of other fodders, of improved stock for dairy and meat-producing purposes, etc., etc., were treated of.

To come to results: I think my pupils learned to use figures at least as well as I could have taught them in any other way, as also to follow a chain of reasoning. They got, besides, some practice in language. But the chief value, I think, was beyond this. One of my boys left school in the spring of 1908 to help his father on the farm, remaining through the year and returning to school this fall. A few weeks ago he told me that he had got a letter from his father, and that he wrote that the yield of a certain field on his farm had this year been twenty-five bushels of corn per acre, whereas in other years it had yielded only about twelve.

This large rate of increase he acknowledged was due to the better methods of cultivation which the son had followed, and not to any heavier fertilization or to any more favorable conditions. I asked the young man where he had gotten the ideas he had thus put in practice, and he replied: "You know very well; you showed us by your arithmetic questions how much profit there is in better farming, and I wrote to the State Experiment Station and read their bulletins and learned how to farm better than my father did." Another of my boys, having been interested in the results figured out from the actual experience of one of our neighbors near the school, bought some alfalfa

seed as he was starting for home, and, following the minute directions given in the Station Bulletin, had the next season in successful growth the first alfalfa patch ever seen in his part of the State.

To me it seems that the success of these young men points to a way by which the training given in schools for deaf may be made not only a benefit to the pupils, but a singularly effective instrument of material and intellectual advantage to our rural communities. For while the South is now the field of, perhaps, the most vigorous campaign for popular education in the history of our country, the small "back-country" farmers of this section are very largely still kept in poverty and ignorance by their general belief that "education doesn't pay."

From these very communities we of the deaf schools have representatives—young people equal in natural qualities to any. If we can turn these boys into intelligent, progressive farmers, we have at our hand the very best kind of missionaries, who on leaving us will automatically place themselves where they are most needed, and will gratuitously preach the gospel of good farming, with the fairest promise of securing to their communities increased prosperity and an appreciation of intellectual culture as the necessary means to that end.

To sum up: I do not think, as I said before, that we have worked out an adequate plan for teaching agriculture in a school for the deaf. But I do feel convinced that we have hold of a clue which in cleverer hands may lead to most valuable educational and pecuniary results. The place which agriculture may fill in modern education is unique. Not law, nor medicine, nor engineering demands for the highest success in its pursuit greater learning or keener faculties of observation and reasoning. But, unlike those professions, it may be followed with both intellectual and financial profit by any fairly intelligent man who will

take the pains to learn and apply the scientific truths which the leaders of his profession have worked out.

For our country schools no other subject, as it seems to me, offers so many points of contact between class-room theory and practical experience. Arithmetic, geography, nature-study may be vitalized by it, as a pneumonia patient is revived by inhaling from a tank of oxygen. To the pupil in the average country school this study may be what the clinic is to the medical student, what the shop-work is to the youth in the Polytechnic. And it may well be that in working out a system of teaching this subject so as to bring out its whole pedagogic and pecuniary value, our schools for the deaf may be able to render to the public and to the cause of general education a return for the liberal treatment which they have so generally received at the hands of the community.

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THE THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE OF THE DEAF-MUTE. AN INQUIRY CONCERNING THE TRUE FOUNDATION OF DEAF-MUTE INSTRUCTION.*—VI.

CHAPTER III—Continued.

Recognition of the true nature of the sign language does not mean failure to recognize the importance of speech.

THE important question is now forced upon us: What is the position of the deaf-mute with respect to word language?

Having viewed thought and speech as logical functions, it now remains for us to consider the position of the deaf-

*Continued from the November, 1909, number of the *Annals*, page 412.

mute with respect to the outward or physiological expression of word language. It is true that he is "handicapped" in his acquisition of word language. The causes of this handicap lie, as I need not here more fully explain, chiefly in the lack of hearing. Such handicaps occur in mankind and must be considered in connection with the character of human nature and its legitimate functions. They are based, however, upon no absolute difference of nature, either mental or physical; the peculiarity lies in some mental or physical infirmity, which in the present case is deafness. That the deaf-mute is able from a physiological point of view to acquire spoken language is evident from his psychical and physical capacity. True, many centuries had to elapse before this became known. It was not until the age of natural sciences that a pathway was broken for it; the basis was offered by the comparatively modern science of physiology.*

Where mental handicaps are evidently due to physical infirmities, mankind has striven to find a means of relief. Though the physical defect could be removed either not at all or in but few cases, pedagogy has endeavored to devise a means of ameliorating it. The instruction of the deaf was originally regarded as a work of Christian charity, just as the art of healing was originally the work of compassionate priests. Medicine has now in a great measure become a science, and the instruction of the deaf must also in the course of time be more and more regarded as such. This has long been evident; and the present paper has mainly been written from this point of view.

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†An important beginning for the physiology of speech was offered by the physician John Conrad Amman, who in his "*Surdus loquens*" (Amsterdam, 1692) published a treatise on sounds and the different ways of forming them. Articulation instruction in schools for the deaf was founded upon this treatise until physiology threw new light upon the process of speech.

John Heidsiek, in his time, declared to teachers of the deaf: "For the deaf-mute speech as such does not exist." In this he was certainly right, but only in one respect. In a comprehensive investigation, that is, an investigation concerning the truth of an object, one must always inquire in what respect a statement or judgment is well founded. In one relation it may be true; in another it may be utterly false. And so it is with Heidsiek's statement. It is true as regards the relation of speech to the sense of hearing; but it is untrue as regards its relation to the other senses of touch and sight.

The vocal movements which we execute for the purpose of speech produce sounds and noises. We move our vocal organs, as is known, only with the purpose of producing acoustic effects, and we retain in our consciousness only the differentiated and clearly distinguished sensations of sound as sharply characterized word pictures. The sensations of movement which are connected with the formation of individual sounds are thrown into the background to such an extent that most people know nothing of them.

That the deaf-mute is able to perceive, and to imitate with his own vocal organs, the movements which are necessary for the utterance of sounds and entire words, will at once be recognized by every one who has studied physiology. But it is equally evident that the deaf-mute loses one constituent part of the entire sensation content, and this the most important of all so far as regards the purpose of speech, and the most effective in respect to arousing emotions, namely, the acoustic part. The acoustic element is indeed only a physical effect of the movements of speech, but the former is so closely associated with the latter that the sensations received through the ear are able most accurately to produce and regulate the vocal movements. The ear is so delicately constructed that it can perceive the slightest differences in the number of vibra-

tions. What subtle movements of the tongue must a person execute who even merely desires to whistle a tune correctly! What gives him the measure for the form of the shaping of the mouth, which has to vary with every tone? The tone pictures, as they are called, that lie in the ear are his only guide. Consider also the minutely measured movements of the bow made by the violin player, etc.*

The absence of the acoustic impetus from the speech processes of the speaking deaf-mute is of such vast importance that this fact must be constantly kept in mind. In this way one is ever conscious that a number of advantages, for which spoken language is and always has been greatly valued, simply do not exist for the deaf-mute. We shall recur to this later.

It would, however, be incorrect to assume that the vocal movements make no impression upon the deaf-mute. We define a tone, as is known, by giving the number of its vibrations in a second. The number of vibrations conditions its height, and the strength of the tone its breadth. With this definition we bring the tone back to the sense of touch; we measure its effect on another sense; the connection in which we now think of the tone is a different one. The fact of the vibration can be *felt* in the body which produces the sound or tone. The effects of the tone on the sense of touch do not escape the consciousness of the speaking deaf-mute. He feels the vibrations which the tone produces in his larynx, in his breast, etc.; after some practice he can to a certain degree distinguish whether he produces high or deep, strong or weak tones. He further feels the strength and the peculiar modification of the current of air necessary for the formation of sounds.

*I can offer my colleagues nothing new in the following remarks, but in the interest of scientific completeness it seems necessary to consider the subject.

We call these sensations sound-touch sensations. They are, as the name indicates, sensations which the sound produces through its effect on the sense of touch. If Mr. Heidsiek had more closely investigated the meaning of the term "sound-speech" he would have perceived that if we desire to put the whole truth regarding the object into the name, we should really call it sound-touch-speech. No one can say that sound-touch-speech does not exist for the deaf-mute. The sound-touch sensations are, notwithstanding their meagreness and vagueness, of great importance to him in his instruction. If he in no way perceived the effect of his articulation movements, speech would indeed have no meaning for him and he would not be able to utilize sounds for the purposes of language.

Besides the sound-touch sensations there come to the consciousness of the deaf-mute a number of other sensations which are connected with the execution of the movements necessary for the formation of individual sounds. He receives sensations from the innervations of the movements, from touching the individual organs of speech, pressing upon them, pushing them, etc. Since these sensations are directly associated with the movements, we call them kinæsthetic sensations. They unite themselves with the sound-touch sensations in one picture, which forms in the consciousness of the deaf-mute the conception of speech. Before the mirror or on the mouth of others he can gain further acquaintance with the actuality and the nature of the speech movements by means of his sense of sight and can thus aid the tactile impressions by visual impressions.

In the acquisition of speech the deaf-mute must, as already stated, acquire sufficiently differentiated word pictures—we ought really to call them word-touch pictures—to be able to produce and regulate with sufficient clearness the corresponding movements and with them the respective acoustic effects. Naturally this is not accom-

plished with the same ease and correctness as the acoustic word picture of the hearing person. When the ability is acquired by the deaf-mute, he is virtually transformed into a hearing person. To teach the deaf to speak is exceedingly laborious and requires much time, but speech is of sufficient importance to justify the labor and time demanded.

When the deaf-mute learns speech, an association is created between the word picture, that is, the speech representation of the word, and the representation of the idea. The word now appears as something new, something foreign to the thought picture, and slightly clears up the content of the thought; it has little to do either with the thought process or the logical content of the idea. The deaf-mute must apply himself with great energy to the acquisition of the spoken word, since the execution of the speech movements under the guidance of kinæsthetic representations and under the control of touch sensations is very difficult. To the idea picture, which has been thought independently, is now added a notion of activity, so that we have to deal with an "experience association" between idea and word. Lipps defines the law in this case as follows: "When one psychical process occurs simultaneously with another, or follows directly after it, the two form a single process, in such a manner that the recurrence of a part of the process tends to produce the recurrence of the whole."

Now the outward appearance, and the outward fact that the word may after some practice recall the thought of the idea, lead some to the opinion that the word in this case is the only function of comprehension. This opinion at the present time governs the whole theory of the oral method of teaching the deaf, but it does not follow that the opinion is correct. We have seen that the gesture is logically and actually connected with the process of per-

ception, and that it is an undeniable function of the thought content. We must therefore in the association of thought and speech accept two co-ordinate function values in the "dependent variable." Language functions with all thinking beings in two forms: in gesture language and in word language. In the deaf-mute gesture language plays the same part in relation to his word language that word language does in relation to gesture language in hearing persons.

For hearing people, word language has these unmistakable advantages:

1. The spoken word is sensuous. This sensuous influence is an especially strong one, since its acoustic sensation content as regards height, strength, duration, and sound-color leaves a very sharp impression upon the memory. Everybody acquires the "articulation basis" of his race or nation so thoroughly that the pronunciation of foreign languages becomes difficult for him. The "foreigner" is recognized everywhere and no one can wholly deny his "native soil."

2. The spoken word is easily communicated. The impressions of sound, as has been said, continue in the memory with great clearness, and are therefore well adapted to arouse, direct, and control the movements of speech.

3. The spoken word is æsthetic in its nature. It acts upon the emotions with such powerful effect that the "life process" is thereby influenced. We take pleasure in the word in the first place on account of its rhythmic and dynamic character. Whatever gives pleasure to man arouses his attention and interest. We do not desire to enter upon vain speculations or to put forward uncertain hypotheses; but we may perhaps assume that it is on account of the influence which word language undoubtedly exerts upon the emotions that it has been victorious over gesture language in the struggle of evolution. Since speech

was able to arouse the innermost life of man, he turned to it more and more and limited his gestures to the best degree of movement. Gesture language therefore withdrew into the background and finally formed only a brief stage of transition in the "life process of comprehension."

In its influence upon the emotions lies the "power" and "charm" of speech, in regard to which so much has been said, and about which so much has been written in prose and verse. Even in mere emphasis there are determining and suggestive elements. Professor P. Barth says: "The animation of the voice is transmitted to the content of what this voice says." Emphasis in many cases makes the gesture appear unnecessary. To be sure every change in the tone of voice and sound-color betrays itself in noticeable movements of the breast and the face, but this kinæsthetic influence has much less effect than sound upon the emotions. Joy, pain, sorrow, hate, and abhorrence are first understood through facial expression and gesture, but the living fire peculiar to these emotions may also be enkindled by the voice.

Is it not a pity that the properties of word language above mentioned have no influence upon the deaf? For this reason word language will never assume the significance for them that it has for hearing persons. The deaf-mute will never regard word language in itself highly, since it does not influence him æsthetically and sympathetically. The sensations of movement and of touch which are produced in speaking have no effect, or only a slight one, upon the emotions.

This fact has cast a dark shadow over the whole work of deaf-mute instruction. If the deaf-mute does not learn to value word language and love it, then all our labor and trouble are in vain. Now it is thought by some that if we only forbid the sign language, the love for word language will take its place. Far from it! The deaf-mute ap-

proaches word language as a foreigner; in the sign language, on the contrary, he is at home, since gestures are inseparably connected with his understanding and comprehension.

Now is there no way to arouse the feelings of the deaf in behalf of word language? If there were none, I should not want to be a teacher of the deaf a day longer. In word language there are relations to the *social* feelings of humanity, and the deaf-mute is a part of humanity; for word language is the intellectual means of communication among men. For this reason it must also be made to appear important to the deaf-mute. His social feeling is awakened and developed by the acquisition of word language. With every little sentence that he acquires, he must learn to feel that he is thereby brought nearer to human society. He must be brought to perceive that it is necessary for him to learn to speak if he really wishes to belong to mankind.

But one thing must be clearly understood; namely, that the deaf-mute can be brought to speak only upon the basis of his original mental faculties; and that in these faculties the sign language has the predominant place.

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[TO BE CONTINUED.]

MATERIAL FOR LANGUAGE WORK.

WHAT a wealth of material there is all about us which may be used in the various grade work with the deaf! One of the very important things to be striven for is originality in selecting the subject-matter or material and in its presentation. There is so much good material all about us that it seems too bad to present ideas to our classes in the same old monotonous way day after day. Let the children feel

that something new and delightful is coming at each language period. They love mysteries and surprises. We like pleasant surprises ourselves even now—we know we do—so let the children have a touch of them through the long hours of the day. There is something so delightful, for instance, to little folks in seeing a bright-colored box brought forth by the teacher or a mysterious-looking package. They know at once that the box contains something they have never seen before and their interest is aroused from the first. In the primary grades, especially, much is needed in the line of devices, something new and fresh and different in material. I have known a teacher to use for weeks the same picture for a language lesson, when others new and fresh and perhaps prettily colored would have answered the purpose just as well and far better. Is it any wonder that the children grew tired, were restless, and disliked exceedingly even the sight of the well-worn picture which grew to be almost sickening to them?

There should be pretty pictures in the schoolroom of the deaf at every turn. Some thought or word is sure to occur in a language lesson, which will need for illustration any or all the pictures that can be placed upon the walls of the schoolroom.

Often some little unexpected event may suggest an impromptu language lesson and interest the children intensely. One day a lady came to school for a little visit and brought her baby with her. What more delightful than a language lesson about a real live baby? Can you not see the interest of the children and their delight because this was something different, the fun of watching the little one and telling about something which it was every moment doing? And if the baby happened to cry, perhaps the interest would wax even more intense.

Frequently one of our children enters the schoolroom in the morning with eyes alive with interest because of some-

thing seen on the way to school or of an event which has occurred at home. These very experiences may often be utilized, so that they become for all the best kind of a language lesson for the day. The questions which may be asked of the pupils, the general questions on the event, may be answered as well by the children who didn't have the experience as by the one who did. Numberless questions may be asked, all bearing upon the subject, and yet not directly.

New questions about different though familiar things should always be an aim of the teacher. What children—poor dears—want the same old picture, the same old material, the same old questions? Surely none of them. For a change, why not take the class to the window and let the children silently look out upon the street, or away and beyond that which is at close range? A fine language lesson may be the result of this little experiment. It is well for the children to be taught how to see things, how to look and find the details of the little scene outside the window. If they have not been able to see very much, why not talk a little about the objects out of doors as the class is gathered at the window? Lead them to see not only the outside objects, the people passing, etc., but call attention to all the really beautiful details of the little picture Nature has given them. Make them perceive the colors in the sky, the greenness of the trees, their shapes, the varying shades and tints all about, and the lights and shadows, where it is possible to call attention to such things. With a little encouragement and guidance the children may thus be led to look for the beauty as well as the commonplace in everything about them.

Many beautiful and artistic language lessons, appropriate to the season, may be had by bringing into the schoolroom some of the very things which represent it. When the world is aglow with its brilliant October color, when the

painting of the leaves surpasses any artist's skill, and they rustle as we walk carelessly over their glory, then is the time to have an autumn language lesson. Bring a great heap of leaves to school and cut down branches of the trees. Find specimens of leaves from as many kinds of trees as possible and have a generous pile for the children to study. Oh, what a happy language lesson this would be! Look for the colors, the combinations, the shapes of the different leaves, the veining, the stems, the various ways in which they grow, the names of the trees, and which one's leaves are prettiest in the fall. If possible, have pictures or drawings of the different and most familiar types of trees and study their shapes and general height. Let the children select from the heap of leaves those which belong to the trees represented in the pictures. At the end of the day a painting lesson may be given and some of the prettiest leaves copied. The children may cut these out when dry and a border may be made of them above the blackboard.

For spring language lessons, have the children study the tiny buds from the trees, and the young light green grass-blades, and the blossoming flowers. Many specimens of each are much better than a few; for the endless variety in the growth of all Nature as it awakes in the spring is wonderful, and in grass alone the growth of hardly two blades is similar. Of course attention should be called to the return of the birds and the building of the many and varied nests of the different varieties. Pictures of the birds with each one's special nest adds interest to these lessons.

In winter the material, though perhaps not so picturesque, is at the same time interesting. The branches of the trees, bare and dry as they are, are full of meaning, and the different manners in which they grow, the variety in grouping, the kind of wood, etc., may be studied with benefit during the winter season. Bring a little snow into the schoolroom and give a lesson regarding the way in which it melts, and

why. If the teacher is the possessor of a microscope or even a magnifying glass, the shapes of the flakes may be studied. Some teachers may be fortunate enough to borrow a glass. Many people are very accommodating in lending articles which will be of service to the school for the deaf, for every one is interested in these children. The dry grass of winter, the frost, icicles, and frozen water are all good subjects for language lessons.

Surely there is no lack of material during the beautiful warm days of summer. Flowers, trees, running water, grass, sky, stones, and the woods are full of suggestions.

The interest of language lessons is often heightened when the children help to provide the materials used. Encourage them to look for all there is of interest about them and to find it. Picture books containing illustrations of animals in action have been used by some teachers as a good basis for language lessons. The children tell what each animal is doing and write about it.

Lessons on the senses are of interest. For sight lessons, numerous devices may be used. One which combines a memory test with that of sight is as follows. It is founded upon a game familiar to us all.

Have a table covered with objects—perhaps thirty—the more dissimilar the better, and cover them all with a cloth. The children may gather about the table and, when the cover is lifted, leave half a minute or less time in which to see what is placed upon the table. The objects are then covered and the children hastily write the names of all remembered. Later, each child gives some sentence concerning these objects and much may be written and talked of about them. A picture may be held face downward before the children, turned suddenly, and then described by them from memory.

Language lessons on taste may be made very unique and interesting. Articles to be tasted by the children when

blindfolded are to be guessed. These should be chosen carefully. Then it is possible to have the article to be tasted near by. For instance, cinnamon might be one of the articles to be guessed, and a picture of the plant would add to the interest of the language lesson. Or a picture of the sugar cane would be in point as illustrating sugar. An orange, a fig, a date, etc., could all be treated in the same way. Any one of these eatables could be used as the subject of a composition or language lesson with profit.

The lessons on smell or touch may be made full of variety and information.

Perhaps some of us have had what is known as the "picture-puzzle craze." Did you ever think of cutting up a sentence or a tiny paragraph and putting it together in proper form?

In closing, I repeat that our material for language work is all about us, and we can indeed find—

> "Tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
> Sermons in stones, and good in everything."

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HINTS ON DISCIPLINE.

"He that spareth his rod hateth his son," said Solomon many years ago, and we with mawkish sentimentality exclaim that that might have been true in his day but it is not at all applicable to the father of the twentieth century. So the rod, like many other out-of-date impedimenta, has been relegated to the attic and even the rod in pickle rarely emerges from its brine.

The rod, in Biblical days, was a favorite figure of speech and the wise old king used it, presumably, to designate some suitable chastisement for the unregenerate child.

What is a suitable punishment for the youth of to-day?

Does it not seem possible that if there were wise laws to govern our households and our schools, and these laws were *firmly* enforced, the jails in another decade or two might not be so crowded? The child who habitually disregards the regulations of his home and his school is not likely to grow up into a law-abiding citizen.

Dr. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard College, in a lecture delivered in Philadelphia not long ago, said that the university student should not be subject to discipline, as training in punctuality, promptness, and enforced performance of duty do not produce a scholar, a person with initiative power. They may not, but they do produce good business men who can be relied upon, and that is what we want our pupils to become.

How few of us realize the fearful responsibility we assume when we undertake the education of the deaf. To them we are, during the years they are under our care, everything that means the enlightenment of their souls. Many of them, the majority of them I should say, come to us like animals without speech, language, or any knowledge of good or evil, and upon us devolves the unfolding of the hard little bud of a mind into as full and perfect a blossom as is possible; so let none of us go into the work "unadvisedly or lightly; but reverently, discreetly, advisedly, soberly, and in the fear of God."

We often hear a young teacher say, "I should enjoy teaching so much if the pupils were always good," but the millennium has not come yet and until it does we must look for some disturbing element in every class of ordinary children.

An infallible rule for keeping the little ones good is to keep them so busy with interesting work that they have no time for mischief. Every teacher knows that children naturally love to learn what is new and are always interested in doing what they can do easily. When suitable work is

assigned to them the tendency to idleness and its consequent mischief is greatly lessened and a listless, troublesome pupil often becomes an earnest worker.

A frequent change of work for the younger pupils is very necessary or they soon become weary of well doing.

If an inducement is offered for perfect lessons, a trifling gift at the end of the term, a word of approval for the neatest paper, a race to see who first completes the tedious, abstract work, the task becomes a game and the children are happy.

When a punishment is essential, endeavor, like the Mikado in a once popular light opera, to have the punishment fit the crime. For a class of incorrigible sign-makers the teacher made mittens of strong chintz and when a child made a sign one was immediately placed upon his left hand, and for the second sign another upon his right, so that signing for the time became almost an impossibility; and the pupil felt so mortified at having to wear the ugly mittens for a whole morning that he soon gave up the practice of signing while in the schoolroom. The only way in which thorough work can be done in a school of many pupils is by class work. In most of the oral schools for the deaf there are not more than ten in a class but even in small classes this system has one serious weakness. The brightest cannot gain time, and if an average child be absent but for a short time he drops so far behind his class that it becomes the imperative duty of his teacher to spare him some minutes daily of her undivided care and attention until he regains his place in the class; otherwise he grows discouraged and sinks into that indifference which is so hard to combat, or, worse, becomes unruly and impertinent and is an example of evil to his classmates.

In a paper I read some time ago, written by a superintendent of public schools, he advised that a complete record be kept. "This record is given to the teacher when

the child is promoted. The record shows clearly the exact amount and character of the work done by each child on every subject. It shows also all the previous teacher has been able to learn concerning the children's mental, moral, and physical defects; all that is known of their likes and dislikes; all that has been found out concerning their home life and social environment, and everything else that may have a bearing on the character of the work that may reasonably be expected from each."

In every school some record of each child is kept, but not such a comprehensive one as is here recommended. Do we, I wonder, ever seriously consider the likes and dislikes of each individual pupil? If we find that Johnny is very fond of flowers it should be his duty to water and care for the plants in our schoolroom; the nervous child, with sufficient hearing to be annoyed by the screeching of a pencil on a slate, should never be required to use one.

Anything to which the possessive pronoun can be prefixed gains additional value in the eyes of the children. If the plants in the class-room are "our plants," the pictures on the walls "our pictures;" in fact, if the room is ours to be kept tidy and attractive, it adds much to the interest and quality of the work done there. I think I may positively assert that no systematic, careful work can be done in an untidy, disorderly schoolroom, and there are very few untidy teachers who are thorough ones. We cannot be too careful in the matter of personal neatness and adornment. The eye has to supply the pleasure for two senses to the deaf children, and a bright ribbon, a fresh waist, or a dainty frock goes a long way toward fixing the attention, and the affection also, of our pupils. One little girl whom I knew loved her teacher because she had "many, many, many pretty dresses." Not an exalted reason for love, but a good illustration of the importance of being carefully dressed while in school.

Dr. Worcester in "Religion and Medicine" says: "There is a very easy and natural way by which many childish faults and nervous weaknesses can be removed; that is by making good suggestions to our children while they are in a state of natural sleep. * * * By this means I have removed childish fears, and corrected habits of biting the nails and sleep-walking. I have checked nervous twitching, anger, violence, a disposition to lie, and I have improved speech in two stammering children. My method is to address the sleeping child in a low and gentle tone, telling it that I am about to speak to it, but that my words will not disturb it, nor will it awake. Then I give the necessary suggestions in simple words, repeating them in different language several times."

I have tried Dr. Worcester's suggestions with a sleeping normal child but without the desired result, perhaps because of my lack of faith, though I think all waking children are unconsciously influenced by a stronger will, and when we firmly, gently, and persistently insist that certain faults are to be corrected they are in the end sure to be overcome. Do not make the mistake of too often speaking of the same fault; if the child cannot remember what he has been told quite frequently, punish him in a way that will make him remember, but make the punishments as rare as possible. Rewards, not bribes, are so much better than penalties. The donkey driver who thought of the expedient of having a succulent thistle dangle temptingly just out of reach of his donkey's mouth arrived at his destination before the driver who used the goad.

Do not let us forget Kingsley's advice to help our lame dogs over the stiles. Mental lameness is not always incurable and many a slow pupil who was thought to be "almost an idiot" by a little judicious help on the part of the teacher has become an average, and sometimes even a bright scholar.

As King Solomon furnished me with the opening sentence of this article, I shall close it with another of his proverbs, the sapience of which even the present generation can hardly question: "Train up a child in the way he should go; and when he is old, he will not depart from it."

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THE MODEL SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF.

SCHOOLS for the deaf have so many different departments that it is necessary for their complete success that they be organized with a superintendent, a principal of instruction, and a steward, with a complete corps of teachers and officers. There should be a head to each department; but the superintendent should be the only head to the whole school. With several heads, there can be no peace or harmony.

All officers and teachers should be nominated by the superintendent and be in accord and sympathy with his ideas and methods of running the school. The board of trustees should elect the officers and teachers nominated by the superintendent, unless they find out he has made a mistake and proposed some one unworthy and incompetent. The board should dismiss all officers and teachers on recommendation of the superintendent if they find it is for the good of the school.

All minor employees and helpers should be appointed and dismissed by the superintendent for cause, without troubling the board.

Any teacher or officer found guilty of conspiring, scheming, or plotting against the management of the school, or forming little cliques for the purpose of talking and working against the superintendent, should be reported to the

trustees and censured or dismissed. On the other hand if the officers and teachers find the board has made a mistake, and put in a superintendent unworthy and incompetent, they should report the matter to the board and have them investigate his character and methods. This is the way to have harmony.

The superintendent and trustees should be in perfect harmony. In case of disagreement between them, the superintendent should submit to the higher authority or resign his position to some one who is willing to be ruled by the higher powers. If the board is wrong and will not allow the superintendent to carry out the right policies, its members should resign and give place to more competent men.

The same plan should operate with teachers and superintendent. The teachers and officers ought to submit gracefully to the superintendent in case of disagreement or resign their positions. If the superintendent is wrong in these differences, the board should investigate the matter.

When each officer and teacher knows his or her business, and attends to that and nothing else, there will be no trouble about peace and harmony. Frequently an officer gets an exalted idea of his position, assumes authority and power that belongs to the superintendent, and begins to suggest and dictate to a lower officer; then comes trouble and perhaps a row; this can be settled by the superintendent, who will tell each one his place and how to stay in it. These scraps or rows always come from some presumptuous or meddlesome person who feels that he has more authority than has been given him.

It is very hard to have perfect harmony in a large school with so many persons of different dispositions, habits, ideas, and ideals; but it can be had if these principles are followed. We must have unity to get complete success. Of course, we cannot expect entire congeniality in such a crowd of

persons, so diverse in their tastes, characters, and aspirations; but we can have unity if each one will attend strictly to his own business and let everybody else's alone.

There should be no criticising or reporting to the superintendent of one another's work. If, however, anything occurs that is morally wrong or criminal, it, of course, is the duty of any officer to report such a matter to the superintendent. This would be much better than secret bickerings, intrigues, and schemes of little cliques. A school cannot afford to be mortified or disgraced by one of its members. If a bad character accidentally gets into the school, it is the duty of every officer to do his or her best to get rid of such a person. Such an example and influence ought not to be tolerated among deaf children, whose characters are so easily moulded.

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DO BRAINS PAY?

Do brains pay? This is a question that has not altogether been settled by the people of the "speaking world." If it still be a mooted question among our more fortunate hearing brothers, how much more so it is among the deaf. The deaf-mute at school is to be fitted for whatever sphere of usefulness may be most inviting to him among hearing people, and whatever applies to the hearing in this instance applies also to the deaf. That they of necessity must have a rudimentary knowledge of the common branches taught, such as English and mathematics, goes without question; but does a higher education, a college education, pay? A recent writer in the public press of Atlanta, Georgia, has this to say concerning a well-educated college professor:

"After having devoted 58 years of his life to a study of the solar system, Professor J. H. Swindell, formerly a

well known southern educator, is to-day a scissors sharpener on the streets of Atlanta. Professor Swindell became totally deaf several years ago and was forced to give up his place in the faculty of a well known southern university. His study having fitted him for nothing better, he was forced to take up menial labor to earn a livelihood, when he could no longer teach.

"Even now in his poverty he still continues his researches and only lately has published a book in which he declares that the real distance to the sun is 95,740,140 miles; that the moon does not revolve on an axis, for if that were true from some point of the earth both sides would be visible at the same time. The book also makes many other interesting assertions."

Another writer says:

"Had Professor Swindell cultivated his muscle instead of his brains, or had he sparingly developed his mind, enough to learn one of the allied trades, and joined a labor union, he would not to-day be forced to the humiliating extremity of sharpening scissors for a livelihood. Being physically incapacitated for further work he would have been provided for by his co-laborers. But being a man of intellect, and working in a field where his labors are not properly appreciated, he is to-day roaming the streets of Atlanta a vagabond."

These and numerous other comments from the people of the "speaking world" lead clearly to the conclusion that there is something wrong in the educational system of our youth. To develop the muscles of any of our limbs by exercise, allowing the others to remain inert, is to develop the exercised members at the expense of the idle members; and so it is with the mind: it is a psychological fact that the mind can be trained too far in one direction; for instance, the mind might dwell on the science of numbers until its usefulness would be impaired or almost incapaci-

tated for development in any other of the sciences; a pupil thus treated would become a monomaniac. Just as all the muscles of the body should be developed uniformly, so should the mind be developed in the numerous sciences. The importance of developing both body and mind uniformly applies more forcibly to the deaf-mute than it does to the hearing; for there are instances where the hearing have prepared themselves for some particular calling or profession, later to find that their nature, or that certain conditions, would never lead to success from a financial standpoint; and by sheer pluck and perseverance, owing to the numerous opportunities open to them, have been able to fit themselves for usefulness in an entirely different sphere. It must be admitted, too, that the hearing man, possessing all his faculties, is able to find a wider range—a much wider one—than the deaf-mute in the selection of his calling. This the deaf well know, but it should be emphasized time and again.

Education may be a very good thing for the deaf, but where acquired without due regard for some professional or technical training, it is of little value in the money market.

Statistics show that a very large percentage of the failures and tramps are men who have had a college education, and if this be true among the hearing how much more might we expect it to be true among the deaf devoid of technical training. Statistics also show that a large percentage of our financial successes are men who have had only the rudiments of an education; and if this be true among the hearing—and it certainly is according to our observation—then it certainly would be true among the deaf who have fitted themselves for usefulness in some of the handicrafts.

Educators claim that a man from his head down is worth on an average of from $1.50 to $2.00 per day, the price paid

for muscle. From his neck up the value cannot be calculated. Yet skilled ball-players, who may not have more than the rudiments of "the three R's" at their command, are earning salaries that would put a well educated pedagogue to shame.

We have carpenters who earn $3.00 to $4.00 per day—there are many of them, too—but are there many in the realm of intellect who earn so much? We might mention as another illustration the city papers of the town where we are writing, Little Rock, as admitted by a writer on this subject. The reporters of these papers get $10.00 to $18.00 per week. The literary critic of the leading paper gets $21.00 per week. He is a man of fine intellectual attainments, possessing an education that cost him thousands of dollars, but owing to the sharp competition from other intellectual men is forced to labor at wages that have a tendency to be on a par with those of menial labor. The men in the composing room, the linotype operators, the foreman, the "ad." men and the "make-up" men command better salaries than the reporters of the paper or the literary critic and the associate editorial writers.

It is the man who possesses some skill in the performance of something who will succeed; he must be skilled in something where a multitude of others are not capable of serving.

The tendency of the times has been to provide every youth of the land an opportunity to acquire a good education, and wherever it is possible every effort is made to avoid manual labor, higher education serving as an incentive to this unwholesome course. With educated men in sharp competition and commanding less salaries than the allied tradesmen, can there be any inducement to the coming generation to keep up this practice when the climax is reached? On the other hand, must the deaf-mute with all his disadvantages enter into competition in the realm

of intellect with his more fortunate hearing brother when as a matter of fact the deaf, as a whole, can never expect to be their equals?

A well-educated speaking person thrust upon a foreign country and foreign language, without any other means of earning a livelihood than his literary attainments, would be pretty much in the same condition as a well-educated deaf-mute thrust upon speaking people of his own country, without any other means of earning a livelihood than his literary attainments.

Again it is said that where the body is deprived of one of its members, the strength of that member will naturally revert to the other members; likewise where we are deprived of one of the faculties the strength of that faculty will revert to the other faculties; and how acute the others are! So what the deaf lack in the sense of hearing they gain in the sense of sight and feeling. With the sense of touch augmented, is not there a great inducement to the deaf to enter into competition with others through the skilled use of their hands?

In reporting a recent committee gathering in Washington, D. C., in support of trades schools as a supplement to the educational requirements of youth, a writer says:

"Representative W. B. Wilson of Pennsylvania, known as 'the miner statesman' and a member of the committee, made a ringing speech, which sounded the keynote of many others, declaring for technical training as a part of the public school system. He asserted that, after the basis of a pupil's rudimentary education is once established, the line of instruction in the higher grades should be formed into two divisions, one along professional lines for children so adapted, and another course in the mechanical pursuits for those students who have entered that field. This plan he believed to be the best by which the problem of industrial education could be advanced."

While higher educational facilities may be, and are, admissible in schools for the deaf, only the exceptionally bright pupils should be encouraged to pursue them.

The educators of the deaf are agreed that farming is one of the best occupations for the deaf. If the speaking world is awakening to a realization of the importance of agricultural training as a part of the curriculum in fitting the youth for the responsibilities of life, how much more true is this for the deaf. A great majority of them are from the rural districts; nine-tenths of them do not follow the trades taught at school but on the contrary take up farming, of which they have little knowledge, as a means of earning a living. A recent writer in the *Industrial Journal*, in speaking on this subject, says:

"I am aware that many of the deaf know very little about farming. In my opinion those who have held the destiny of the schools for the deaf in their hands are to blame for this. It is greatly to be regretted that there is no provision there now, nor ever has been, for the practical teaching of agriculture."

Summing up the foregoing, there are exceptions in all things, and while it is true that once in a while a deaf-mute is able to employ his literary education to some pecuniary advantage, this is the exception and not the rule. The greatest good to the greatest number should be the constant aim in a school for the deaf, and simply because an exceptionally few do actually "make brains pay" should be no reason that all others should take the higher courses during the training process at school.

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THE CONDITION OF DEAF-MUTES IN CHINA.

THE condition of the deaf-mutes in China is such as to touch with pity the hardest hearts. There are no schools for them and nothing is done for them by their own people. Neglected and ill-treated, they are often sent from door to door to beg for their daily bread, ringing a bell to attract attention. I have seen them on the streets in rags and tatters, with hair so matted and body so covered with sores and vermin as to look hardly human.

In homes of moderate means they may be clothed and fed, but they are misunderstood, teased, and irritated to excessive fits of anger.

Where there is wealth they may be cared for in a helpless way, and even attempts may be made to teach them, for the Chinese are tender-hearted, but no one had ever devised a method of teaching them until the school was opened in Chefoo.

The little deaf niece in the home of a great Viceroy, where I visited, could not ask or answer the simplest questions, though she spent hours daily in the home school taught by a native teacher.

The intelligent Chinese have not thought it worth while to trouble themselves much about these deaf-mute children; besides, they are very much occupied with the many changes that are being made in every department of their great country; yet I have always found them intensely interested and appreciative whenever I have had the opportunity to present the matter to them.

It is among the lower classes that superstition has made the lot of the deaf hard indeed.

A missionary in the province of Honan wrote to me of a little deaf boy whose case was very sad. A man who had

been at enmity with the family died, and they firmly believed that his soul had transmigrated into the body of the child, causing his deafness, and was thus still troubling them; later, when sickness and business reverses overtook the family, the father threatened to kill the boy in order to get rid of his enemy. The missionary argued and plead, offering to send the boy to our school; after some correspondence this was arranged, but every time an opportunity offered to send him something always happened to prevent. Whether the family was unwilling, or what the matter was, we never quite knew. This is one of the extreme cases that has come to my knowledge.

Another case, giving an entirely different view-point, was that of little Hsia Ziao-fong, who represents the third generation in a Christian family. His grandfather was an ordained clergyman and his relatives on both the father's and the mother's side are scholarly men. They all showed a fine appreciation of the opportunity of school advantages for the boy, and the little fellow came to us, a beautiful example of the wise and careful training of his father and mother.

It is an historical fact that no pagan people ever originated a system for teaching the deaf; this has been, in every land, the work of the followers of the loving Christ. How well they have wrought and how worth while it was, is attested to by the fine young men and women among the deaf of this and other lands! And now *they* are passing on to others, through their gifts and prayers for the Chefoo School, the good that has come to them. May God's richest blessing rest on every one that helps on this good cause!

ANNETTA T. MILLS,
Principal of the Chefoo School,
181 *East Seventy-first Street, New York, N. Y.*

ADENOID GROWTHS AS A CAUSE OF DEAFNESS.*

One common cause of partial deafness in the school child is the presence in the naso-pharynx or back of the nose of adenoid growths. These are fleshy-looking masses which fill up more or less completely the back of the nose, and when they are well developed turn the child into a mouth-breather. The mouth is not a breathing organ, and, unless under circumstances of great stress or exertion, should not be used for respiration. It is the function of the nose to warm and filter the air before it reaches the lungs, and where a child is compelled to breathe by the mouth, because his nose is stopped, all sorts of bronchial and lung affections are apt to follow.

Here we are specially concerned with the effect of these adenoid growths on the sense of hearing, and it is well to remember that they may cause deafness and keep up suppuration of the drum cavity without being bulky enough to cause the child to breathe by the mouth. Adenoid growths cause deafness by interfering with the ventilation of the drum cavity. With each act of swallowing the mouth of the Eustachian tube opens and air passes up to the drum cavity. This air is gradually absorbed by the vessels of the drum cavity, and unless it be renewed from the throat, the drum cavity becomes a partial vacuum, the membrane becomes sucked or rather pushed inwards, and does not respond to sound waves which reach it through the external auditory canal. Deafness is the result.

But adenoids also hurt the ear by harboring infective germs, which reach the ear from time to time and start or keep up suppurative changes within the drum cavity.

*Extracted, by permission, from an Address on "Deafness in the School Child."

When they are well developed—well enough to interfere with nasal breathing—they change the whole facial expression. The child sits with his mouth half opened and appears dull and stupid. The smart look which comes from the active use of the muscles about the nose and mouth is absent from the child's face, and this laxness of facial expression spreads to the upper half of the face, for even the eyelids tend to droop, and the whole face becomes flat and uninteresting. When the back of the nose is thus blocked by growths the voice of the child becomes altered. The nasopharnyx is no longer a resonating cavity, and the voice becomes flat and toneless. The speech too of the child suffers—M becomes B and N becomes D, etc. Bad respiration causes deficient aeration of the blood, and the little ones flag at their work, complain of headache, and cannot give attention in the class.

Where nasal breathing is badly interfered with, another sign is often present. The child cannot blow his nose, and the mucus tends to trickle from it and rest on his upper lip. This adds untidiness to apparent stupidity, and the bright, smart face of the young learner is lost for the dull, sullen, almost revolting face of the mouth-breather. Such is the mouth-breather of the elementary schools, and, taken along with the subject of running ears, he is the commonest example of the so-called stupid child which the elementary school affords.

The number of school children who suffer from adenoids is very great. By suffering, I do not mean from deafness only, but from general poor health, from dull mentality, and from many other effects. Amongst the deaf and dumb—who are, however, hardly a fair standard—at least 30 per cent. suffer so badly that removal is desirable. In Sweden, in 1905, amongst 3,495 children examined, 450, or 13.8 per cent., showed well-marked adenoids, and 7.8 per cent. suffered from defective hearing. Another Swedish return

shows that amongst 1,250 Board School children, 16 per cent. were affected with adenoids.

Now the aspect of this question which I wish to emphasize to-night is that the timely removal of post-nasal adenoids from children whose deafness has been caused by these growths is nearly always followed by the recovery of hearing. There is no surgical procedure with which I am acquainted which is so uniformly followed by a good result, and the improvement is not confined to the hearing of the child, but extends to his general health and mental state.

JAMES KERR LOVE,
Aural Surgeon, Glasgow Royal Infirmary,
Aurist, Glasgow Institution for the Deaf,
Glasgow, Scotland.

GILBERT OTIS FAY.

GILBERT OTIS FAY, Ph. D., one of the oldest and most prominent educators for the deaf, died at his home in Hartford on Friday, February 18, 1910. He entered the profession in 1862, and was active therein until two weeks before his death.

Mr. Fay was the son of the Reverend Gilbert and Clarissa Walker Fay and was born November 8, 1834, at Wadsworth, Ohio, where his father was a home missionary in what was then considered the far west. At the age of two years he lost his father by death, and his mother with her young son returned to her early home in Medway, Massachusetts, where Gilbert grew to manhood in a large circle of relatives. To this early home and the friends there he ever retained a strong attachment.

Mr. Fay prepared for college at Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, where he was graduated with highest honors in 1854. After a year of miscellaneous

study and reading, he entered Williams College, but after a short period, in spite of the strong advice of President Mark Hopkins to remain, he decided to transfer his connection to Yale College. He had been brought up in a Puritan strait-jacket, and he thought the life at Williamstown too frivolous.

At Yale, where he was graduated in 1859, he maintained a high standing in scholarship, in literary work, and in the estimation of his classmates. For the last two years of his course he was chairman of his class, and was campaign president of the Brothers in Unity Society in his senior year, a much coveted honor.

The three years succeeding his graduation at Yale were spent at Andover Theological Seminary, where he was graduated in 1862. The following autumn, on the recommendation of Professor Noah Porter of Yale, he was invited by the Reverend Collins Stone, at that time Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, to join its teaching corps. He took great interest in the work and devoted himself heartily to it. Besides receiving daily lessons in the sign language from the Superintendent, he spent much of his spare time among the deaf that he might acquire a mastery and a facility in its use. Of his work at that time he wrote years afterwards, "My school assignment was the lowest grade. How delightful was the work itself; the teaching of simple words and simplest sentences, with counting thrown in for mathematics. The mental growth of my pupils, sitting around the room upon stools, with an occasional lean upon slates standing behind them—I hope they were always clean—was to me a greater pleasure than I had experienced in previous years of occupation in the study of the classics, the higher mathematics, physics, metaphysics, and theology."

After four years in the classroom, on the resignation of Superintendent Weed, in 1866, Mr. Fay succeeded him.

At that time a large and commodious new building was in process of erection, and for a year, on account of the sanitary condition of the old building, the school was suspended. Superintendent Fay bought and arranged all the furnishings of the new building. Forty thousand dollars were appropriated for that purpose. The quantity and quality of the furniture obtained brought a storm of public censure and a thorough legislative investigation. When it was ascertained that the State had obtained its full money's worth, and six thousand dollars were still unexpended, public confidence was fully restored and consolidated.

Superintendent Fay thoroughly reorganized the school, and under his management it grew from 150 to 440 pupils, and its standing was second to none in the country. Two years before he left Ohio one of the largest and most profitable of the National Conventions of the Instructors of the Deaf met at the Institution there, and it is still held in pleasantest memory by all who shared in its generous hospitality.

The political complexion of the State Government changed repeatedly during his administration, but he retained the unshaken confidence of both political parties, though every officer and employee under him, except the teachers, were changed six times.

In 1880, Superintendent Fay received from Western Reserve College the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The same year he accepted an invitation to become an instructor in the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf, where he completed his life work. He was a wise counsellor, a loyal and true fellow worker, and an ever ready and willing helper.

Dr. Fay was an authority in his profession and a valued contributor to its literature. As a writer, he was broad-minded, graceful, and vigorous. He went to the root of every matter which he took up. At the conventions

of instructors of the deaf, no man was listened to more closely. After listening to one of his papers, President E. M. Gallaudet said: "Mr. President, I look upon Dr. Fay of Hartford as a prophet of deaf-mute instruction in this country. With keen, far-sighted ken he has grasped what is to come. He has given voice to thoughts that have rested in my mind, which I have not had time to formulate, which I should not have put into shape with the precision, strength, and vigor that he has. Mr. President, I congratulate Dr. Fay on his prophetic vision."

Dr. Fay's death followed a surgical operation, though that was not the cause of it. Developments showed the operation to be fully justified.

Dr. Fay was twice married. His first wife was Miss Adelia Allen of Leominster, Massachusetts, who died in 1867. In 1869 he married Miss Mary J. Jarvis, of Massillon, Ohio, whose death occurred in 1903. He left two daughters and one son—Mrs. Z. F. Westervelt, of Rochester, New York, Miss Elizabeth Fay, a teacher in the American School at Hartford, and Charles J. Fay, a lawyer in New York. Dr. Fay was a member and had been a deacon of the Asylum Hill Congregational Church, of which his classmate and friend, Reverend Joseph H. Twichell, is pastor.

The family life of Dr. Fay was delightful. After he came to Hartford, he had more leisure to devote to it. He lived with his children and his heart was bound up in them, and theirs in him, and in each other. Strong affection was a family trait, not only for one another, but for all their kin. The atmosphere of the home was full of love for the deaf. The evidence of it was always upon its walls, and the children all drank it in with every breath.

Dr. Fay's sympathy with the deaf and his love for them was very marked. He understood them thoroughly, and made due allowance for short-comings which were their misfortune rather than their fault. He followed his former

pupils with keenest interest, and rejoiced in all their successes. His greetings were most cordial, and they felt that they had no warmer friend than he. Though it is thirty years since he left the Ohio Institution, no name is held in higher esteem by the deaf of that State than his. On a visit there three years ago, he was royally entertained by the present Superintendent. He loved his profession, was proud of it, and kept the evidence of it prominently displayed in his home. His death leaves a great blank in their hearts and in the profession.

JOB WILLIAMS,
Principal of the American School,
Hartford, Connecticut.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

PUBLICATIONS COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF THE DEAF. A First Reader for Deaf Children. Edinburgh: Thomas Nelson and Sons. 12mo, pp. 80. Price one shilling (24 cents) net.

The selections of this Reader have been judiciously compiled and are well arranged. The paper and printing are excellent and there are fine illustrations, many of them in color. The only fault one can find is with the binding, which is too slight for a book that is to be handled by children as much as this deserves to be.

In a paper read at the International Conference at Edinburgh in 1907 Dr. W. H. Addison, Chairman of the Committee that compiled and arranged this Reader, criticised the "many excellent books" of a similar scope published in America, on the ground that "they contain words and phrases which are purely American, and which we do not want our pupils to acquire, in the early stages of their instruction at least." We are glad to say that, while there are a few words in this Reader that are not generally employed in the same sense in America as in England, there are none that would make its use objectionable for our pupils. On the contrary, if we

call their attention to the fact that people in Great Britain name our "pitcher" a "jug," our "cane" a "stick," and our "pie" a "tart," it gives additional interest to the book, and has the good effect of broadening their mental outlook as well as enlarging their vocabulary. We hope this excellent Reader will have a large circulation in American as well as British schools for the deaf.

SPARROW, REBECCA E. Stories and Rhymes in Melville Bell Symbols. Volta Bureau: Washington, D. C. 1909. 4to, pp. 158. Price $1.00 (75 cents to teachers).

This is a collection of stories, fables, and verses, such as are found in school readers and other books for children, originally compiled and edited by Miss Sparrow for the benefit of speech classes in the Western New York Institution, and now made available for use in other schools. It is printed at that Institution on fine paper, which brings out the symbols very clearly, and through the courtesy of various publishers, who permitted their copyright cuts to be used, is beautifully illustrated.

TERRY, HOWARD L. Waters from an Ozark Spring. A Book of Verse. Boston: Richard G. Badger. 1909. 12mo, pp. 64. Price 75 cents.

Mr. Terry is a former student of Gallaudet College. His verses give evidence of an appreciative love of nature and a wide range of poetic expression. In the latter respect the present volume shows a marked improvement when compared with his "Tale of Arcadie and other poems" published ten or more years ago.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS received are:

"A Sketch of History," consisting of Addresses by R. O. Johnson, Superintendent, and J. Frank Handley, Governor, at the laying of the corner-stone of the Indiana School,

June 12, 1907; "Outlines" of the Indiana School for 1909–1910 by R. O. Johnson, Superintendent; "The School Guide" of the Nebraska School for 1909–1910, by J. W. Sowell, Head Teacher of the Academic Department; "The Yellow Book" of the Mississippi Institution for 1909–1910, by J. R. Dobyns, Superintendent; Reports of the Buenos Aires, Argentina, School for Girls for 1905–1906; Calcutta, India, School for 1907; Clarke School for 1908–1909; Genoa, Italy, Institution for 1908; Groningen, Netherlands, Institution for 1909; Milan, Italy, "Pio" Institution for 1903–1907; New England Industrial School for 1908; New South Wales Institution for 1908; Rotterdam School for 1908–1909; Vänersborg School for the Blind-Deaf for 1908–1909 and for the Deaf for 1909–1910; Virginia School for 1908–1909; Virginia School for Colored for 1909; Yorkshire Institution for 1909.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama School.—Mrs. Olive T. Hofsteater has resigned her position as teacher and Mr. George Herman Harper, B. Ph., a graduate of this School and of Gallaudet College, has been appointed in her place.

The School this year is celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of its corporate existence, though its work began two years earlier in a private school opened by Dr. Joseph H. Johnson in 1858. Dr. Johnson continued at the head of the School until his death in 1894, when he was succeeded by his son, the present Principal. In 1866 a department for the blind was added, which in 1887 was provided with a separate institution. In 1892 a school for the deaf and blind of the colored race was established, and these three separate schools are now all under Mr. Johnson's direction.

Florida School.—The new building was opened with an exhibition and other appropriate housewarming exercises on the evening of February 4, 1910. Dr. N. F. Walker, Superintendent of the South Carolina Institution, and Hon. Frank

P. Fleming, Jr., a member of the Florida State Board of Control, made addresses. Dr. Walker spoke of his double interest in the School, from its having been established by Mr. T. H. Coleman, a graduate of the South Carolina Institution, and from its actual President, Mr. A. H. Walker, being his own son. Dr. Walker presented the School with a handsome lectern, carved and inlaid, made by the pupils of the South Carolina Institution, especially as a gift to the Florida School.

Gallaudet College.—Part of the roof of the main building and the woodwork of the fourth floor were destroyed by fire February 6, 1910, and considerable damage was done by water to other portions of the building and to private property. All the walls, inside as well as outside, are substantially built of brick and remain uninjured. The cause of the fire is unknown; it seems to have begun in a chute into which waste paper and other rubbish were swept. The loss is estimated at $25,000. The college students rendered efficient help to the firemen in extinguishing the flames, and for several days afterwards, together with the younger professors, gave their whole time to the work of clearing away the débris and assisting in the building of a temporary roof. An estimate for the necessary repairs has been submitted to Congress.

Indiana Institution.—William H. DeMotte, LL. D., one of the oldest and most distinguished among American instructors of the deaf, died at his home in Indianapolis, January 2, 1910, of the grippe, aged eighty. He was of Huguenot descent, was born in Harrodsburg, Indiana, in 1830, and was graduated from De Pauw University in 1849. He leaves one daughter, Miss Amelia De Motte, a teacher in the Indiana School.

Dr. DeMotte began his work as a teacher of the deaf in the Indiana School in 1850 and remained there until 1864; from 1875 to 1880 he was Superintendent of the Wisconsin School and from 1880 to 1882 of the Kansas School; from 1889 until his death he again taught in the Indiana School.

During the intervals in his work for the deaf he was Financial Agent for the State of Indiana at the time of the Civil War, President of Indiana Female College for three years, of the Illinois Woman's College for seven years, of Xenia Female College for five years, and engaged in the work of the Young Men's Christian Association of Jacksonville, Illinois, for two years.

During his last decade of service in the Indianapolis School he was Superintendent of the Sunday-School, had charge of all chapel exercises, and also conducted a Bible Class of seventy-five adult deaf persons in Indianapolis. He recently compiled a service book for use in chapel exercises, which will be published by the Indiana School as his memorial.

From the resolutions adopted by his associates we quote the following tribute to his memory:

Resolved, That we record our appreciation of Dr. DeMotte, of his devotion to the interests of the deaf, of his sincere and successful work in the schoolroom, of his friendship for those with whom he labored, of his far reaching influence for good among the deaf of the State.

Resolved, That the Sunday School loses in the death of Dr. DeMotte its leader, but that the power of his life and services will continue to be an inspiration, not only to those connected with the Indiana School, but to the many adult deaf who were privileged to be associated with him in his Sunday morning Bible Class.

Resolved, That the profession at large has lost one of its pioneer workers, who was a staunch friend and true, who set a standard that many a beginner hoped to attain. Many a mature life was uplifted by his religious and intellectual strength and devotion to principle. Those in sorrow and trouble received comfort and encouragement from his presence and kind, thoughtful words.

Manila School.—Twenty-two pupils were present last year. Housekeeping, sewing, hat making, lace making, and wood-carving were taught. A native industrial teacher, Miss Paula Pecson, has been appointed.

Michigan School.—The fine cattle barn which, next to the School, was the pride and delight of Mr. Clarke's heart, was destroyed by fire in the night of January 14–15, 1910. The valuable herd of fifty-five Ayrshire cattle was happily saved through the prompt action of Mr. O. C. Stevens and

others. The loss is about $7,500. The cause of the fire is not known, but it is supposed to have been due to defective electric wiring.

Mississippi Institution.—Mr. Charles H. Talbot, Superintendent of the Mississippi Institution from 1876 to 1881, died at his home at Versailles, Kentucky, February 20, 1910, of pneumonia, aged seventy-two.

Mr. Talbot was graduated from Centre College, Danville, Kentucky, in 1856, and in the following year was appointed a teacher in the Kentucky School. He taught there continuously for twenty years, except during the period from 1862 to 1865, when he was a soldier in the Union army. After leaving the Mississippi Institution he resided for a year or two in Danville and then in Versailles. He leaves a wife and eight children, three of whom are missionaries in China. Dr. Dobyns, his successor in the Mississippi Institution, says of him: "Mr. Talbot was a Christian man of great force of character and splendid financial ability, and was successful in carrying the Institution through the most trying financial period of the State's history." The *Kentucky Standard* says: "Mr. Talbot's old pupils have only kind memories of him. He was faithful and conscientious in his work, and the news of his death will be received with deep regret by the deaf of Kentucky."

Missouri School.—Mr. J. Brent Williams, teacher of printing and editor of the *Record*, has resigned to engage in newspaper work in St. Louis. He is succeeded by Mr. Carlisle Von Thomas.

Oklahoma Institute for Colored.—An "Industrial Institute for the Deaf, Blind, and Orphans of the Colored Race" established by the State at Taft, Oklahoma, was opened September 8, 1909. The Superintendent is Mr. S. Douglas Russell, formerly connected with journalism. The teachers of the deaf are Mr. Monroe Ingram, formerly of the Missouri and Georgia Schools, and Miss Collier Robinson. Twelve deaf children are now in attendance.

Oregon School.—A gold medal was awarded the Oregon School for its exhibit at the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition. The exhibit included work from both the educational and industrial departments.

Utah School.—At a reception given by the Board of Trustees, November 24, 1909, in commemoration of the twentieth anniversary of Mr. Driggs's connection with the School, the Board presented him with a handsome diamond signet ring in recognition of his two decades of service. Mr. Driggs entered the School as Boys' Supervisor in 1889 and two years later was promoted to be a teacher. He spent the year 1897–98 as a normal student at Gallaudet College and the following year as a teacher in the Illinois School. In 1899 he returned to the Utah School as a teacher and in 1901 was appointed to his present position as Superintendent.

Washington State School.—A diploma and a silver medal were awarded the Washington State School for its exhibit at the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition. The exhibit was from the industrial department only.

Wisconsin School.—Mr. Seth W. Gregory has resigned his position as teacher to take charge of the shipping department of the Bradley Knitting Mills of Delavan. His place is temporarily supplied by Mrs. Harvey Lowe who, as Miss Dora P. Hendrickson, was formerly a teacher in this School.

Wright Oral School.—Mr. John D. Wright has a series of articles in the *American Educational Review* for January, February, and March, 1910, entitled "New Method of Educating the Deaf." The "new method" is the oral method, which Mr. Wright claims is the best for all deaf children. To the question why this method has not entirely supplanted the manual method, Mr. Wright replies that "the answer is not simple. In the first place the method of manual communication and teaching is easier for the deaf. Second, it is cheaper, for it requires fewer and less highly trained and therefore less expensive teachers. Third, the main body of taxpayers has not as yet been educated to an understanding of the possibility and desirability of

teaching the deaf exclusively by speech methods. Therefore State legislatures will not grant adequate appropriations for the more expensive method, and their constituents are not sufficiently intelligent to compel their representatives to procure the funds."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Tests of Intellectual Capacity in Children.—Several correspondents have asked us how they can obtain access to the works of Professors Binet and Simon giving psychological tests for determining the degree of intellectual capacity in children, which were mentioned in their article on "The Value of the Oral Method" published in the last number of the *Annals* (footnote, page 32). For the benefit of other readers of the *Annals* who may desire the same information we will say that a good summary of the Binet and Simon tests, translated into English by Dr. Henry A. Goddard, was published in the *Training School* for November and December, 1908, and is reprinted in the "Report of the Committee on Books and Tests pertaining to the Study of Exceptional and Mentally Deficient Children" published in the Proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1909, pages 901–914. This report also contains a valuable bibliography of the subject. Many of the tests suggested are not applicable to deaf children.

The Problem of Reading.—Professor Thomas H. Briggs, of the Eastern Illinois State Normal School, Charleston, Illinois, who is interested in the teaching of silent reading to children who hear, and has written a book on the subject, would be glad to receive information from teachers of the deaf concerning the speed and retentiveness with which their pupils read and, in the case of those who are taught by the manual method, would like to know whether any of them are in the habit of accompanying the reading of difficult passages with gesture signs.

"Why Not Reverse the Process?"—Mr. George Wm. Veditz, of Colorado Springs, Colorado, President of the National Association of the Deaf, formerly a teacher of the deaf, in an article in the *Observer* of January 20, 1910, suggests that deaf children be placed in manual classes when first entering school and transferred to oral classes afterwards, instead of being started in oral classes and transferred to manual classes if they are unsuccessful in acquiring speech. He says among other things:

> Why not use every means for the first two or three years to develop the child's dormant faculties, dormant because lacking means of expression and conception, its faculties of observation, of thought, of memory, of imitation? Galvanize the childish mind into full activity by every stimulant possible, and notably by using the sign language with unfettered hand.
>
> I fully believe—I can almost guarantee—that when at the end of two or three years the children are put into oral classes each and all will respond many times more readily, and even the backward ones will acquire an equipment of speech and lip-reading they cannot possibly get under the procedure now prevailing. My contention is borne out by the circumstance that deaf children of deaf parents who come to school with a knowledge of signs to the manner born, and with a host of ideas and conceptions acquired by its means, make remarkably efficient articulators and lip-readers.

Mr. Olof Hanson, of Seattle, Washington, also formerly a teacher of the deaf, in the *Observer* of February 17, expresses approval of the suggestion. He says in part:

> Instead of compelling the little ones, who are least capable of doing it, to confine their mode of expression to speech and English, and allowing the older pupils to use signs as they please, the process should be reversed. Apply the screws at the upper end. Let the little children use such means of expressing their ideas and developing their minds as will best serve to bring out the best that is in them. But say to the older pupils: You have been to school long enough to express yourselves in English, and (to those taught orally) by speech. The sign language is all right to use in chapel, and for lectures, debates, etc. But in conversation among yourselves and with your teachers you should use speech and English in order to become proficient in their use. Therefore you can, you should, you MUST use speech and English. * * *
>
> Let it be understood that to be admitted into the oral classes is a promotion, an advancement. With the older children using speech and

English, the younger children will try to imitate them, and you will have, even in combined-system schools, the "oral atmosphere" so much desired by the oral teachers.

Day Schools and Residential Schools.—The Forty-second Annual Report of the New York State Board of Charities, Hon. William R. Stewart, President (Albany, 1909), comments as follows upon the comparative advantages of day-schools and residential schools for the deaf:

The city of New York has undertaken the establishment of a number of day schools for the deaf and dumb of that city. Two of the principal influences which favorably affect the training of the deaf and dumb are constant association with the teachers and removal from unfavorable environment. In the existing institutions for the deaf and dumb, the pupils are in close association with the teachers and officers of the institutions, and they are removed from influences which would retard their development. The environments are conducive to intellectual and moral growth and every proper inducement is brought to bear upon the pupils to fit them for self-support and honorable positions in life. The day schools are open only a few hours each day and cannot subject so well the pupils to the discipline which works most satisfactorily for the development of the character. Besides this, the domestic training must be sacrificed and the pupils during the hours not spent in school will be returned to environments which, if not directly hostile to their moral development, are at least not positively helpful. For many pupils of age and experience, the day school may do satisfactory work, but for the younger and less experienced it will prove a difficult task to give suitable training in day-schools.

The experiment of the city of New York will therefore be observed with anxiety, but also with the hope that the plan may be so safeguarded as to work out successfully.

"*Do Brains Pay?*"—"Does higher education pay?" would be a more exact wording of the question which a writer in the present number of the *Annals* is disposed to answer in the negative. Even if it did not pay in dollars and cents, we believe it would still be worth while; and the following statistics, which we take from *Science* of February 4, 1910, indicate that from a pecuniary point of view it is not always as unprofitable as the instances cited by our contributor might lead one to suppose:

The class of '99, Dartmouth College, has one hundred living members in the following occupations: Business, 25; teaching, 23; medicine, 14; law, 13; engineering, 10; journalism, 2; railroading, 2; farming, 2; study, 2; clergyman, 1; chemist, 1; mining, 1; librarian, 1; unclassified, 3.

The class might be called average. Some were poor, and some were able to live comfortably in college, but every one has had to make his own way in his profession. At the decennial reunion last June, and by mail shortly afterwards, reports were received from sixty-seven of the men, stating their incomes for the preceding year. The thirty-three from whom no facts were received are probably getting less income than the average of the class, but I do not think they would lower the average greatly.

Five men out of the sixty-seven who reported their incomes get less than $1,000, with an average of $832; fourteen men get from $1,000 to $1,500, with an average of $1,209; eighteen from $1,500 to $2,000, with an average of $1,689; thirteen from $2,000 to $2,500, with an average of $2,178.60; six from 2,500 to $3,000, with an average of $2,616; and there are one or two in each of the next five hundred dollar groups, to one man who got $7,000. The average income for the class was $2,097.25. The average for the fifty-six who got less than $3,000, *i. e.*, 83 per cent. of those who reported, is $1,705.70. Forty men are below the average of the sixty-seven who reported.

Second Conference of New York Principals.—The Second Conference of Principals and Superintendents of Schools for the Deaf in the State of New York was held, in accordance with the invitation of the State Department of Education, in the Capitol at Albany, January 27, 1910. All the Principals and Superintendents were present, as well as other representatives from some of the schools. The Department of Education was represented by Dr. Thomas E. Finnegan, Third Assistant Commissioner, and Dr. Albert C. Hill, Inspector of Special Schools. From the report of the Conference in the *Deaf-Mutes' Register* of February 3, 1910, we quote the following statement of the action taken:

A preliminary course of study for the first six years of school, planned after progressive and present-day standards, was presented to the Conference by the Education Department and adopted. The course at present embraces only six years' work, but is so arranged that at the end of that time the Syllabus for Elementary Schools, prepared by the State Education Department for the instruction of children in the dublic schools, can be used in the schools for the deaf.

While the course is definite and conclusive in its scope, it has not restricted the instruction to any special method; yet no school will be able to pursue this outline wthout giving the children a good oral working foundation, and those schools that are now using oral methods will be able to pursue their present courses of study and at the same time absorb the adopted course without altering their working plans in the slightest. This will have a marked tendency toward an increased amount of speech and speech-reading in our schools. It furthermore makes possible a continuance of oral instruction for the remainder of a twelve-year term, as a class having completed the first six years would naturally be expected to continue for the remainder of the term along similar lines of instruction.

Following the adoption of a course of study, the question of an increase in the per capita allowance was taken up and discussed, with the result of the appointment of a committee of three to place the matter before the proper finance and appropriation committees of the legislature for their consideration. The following compose the committee: Judge Lewis of Buffalo, Corporation Counsel Andrews of Albany and Superintendent Rider of the Malone School.

Other topics proposed for discussion, but postponed until the next meeting for want of time, were:

1. Administration.
   - (*a*) appointments.
   - (*b*) transfers.
   - (*c*) the differentiation of schools.
   - (*d*) unteachable children in the schools.
   - (*e*) school equipment.
   - (*f*) compulsory attendance.
2. The need of specially trained teachers for schools for the deaf and how it is to be met.
3. Reading in schools for the deaf—its importance and extent.
4. Visual instruction in schools for the deaf.

Examination of Teachers in England.—After long discussion the Association for Oral Instruction, the Society for Training Teachers, and the College of Teachers have at last agreed upon a scheme for a "Joint Examination Board" for teachers, composed of representatives from the three bodies. Each body retains its own independence and the joint arrangement is only for the purpose of the examination for the joint certificate. The examinations are to be held annually in July and are to consist of written papers, a practical teaching test, and a *viva voce* test. The subjects of the written papers will be:

1. The history of the education of the deaf.

2. The principles of education and school management (especially with reference to the deaf), and elementary psychology.

3. The mechanism of speech and the method of teaching articulation.

4. The method of teaching language to the deaf.

5. The anatomy and physiology of the organs of respiration, of circulation, and of speech. The ear. The nervous system.

The expenses of the examination each year are to be divided among the candidates.

New Schools in the Orient.—Last year Mr. Sen Dzong Shi, one of the native teachers trained at the Chefoo School, was invited to take charge of the first government school for the deaf to be opened in China. It is located at Paoting, the provincial capital of the province of Chili, and is supported by the Chinese. The officials promoting it plan to have a department for the blind. Mr. Sen reports one blind and three deaf pupils.

The opening of this school is one of the direct results of the three-thousand-mile journey taken through China by Mrs. Mills, with two of her pupils and Mr. Sen, for the purpose of giving information regarding the deaf. Over fifty meetings were held in sixteen different cities, giving demonstrations before more than thirty thousand people. In Pao Ting they met the district magistrate, who has a deaf daughter, and who was instrumental in starting this government school.

As Mr. Sen is a Christian, arrangements were made permitting him, together with pupils from Christian families, to attend the Sunday services at the Mission Church. He is not allowed to teach Christianity in the school, but no restriction is made on his talking about it outside as much as he wishes. Pupils desiring to unite with the church are required to wait until they have left the School.

The Korean teacher, Mr. Yi, who took the training at the Chefoo School last year, reports six pupils—one a girl—in the school for the deaf which he has opened at Pyeng Yang. So far as we know this is the first school for the deaf in Korea.

Gifts for China.—The Oriental Society for Promoting the Education of the Deaf, whose headquarters are at Chefoo, China, acknowledges the following list of gifts received from schools, churches, and societies for the deaf during 1909:

From America.

*"Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet Memorial Scholarships"	$95.00
Puget Sound Association, per W. S. Root	40.00
Utah School "Sunshine Society" (two gifts)	30.00
Colorado School	15.00
Pennsylvania Oral School	25.00
American School	32.00
Ohio School	8.00
Oklahoma School	4.17
New Jersey School	31.00
Pennsylvania Institution and Teachers' Association	187.78
Clarke School	100.00
Western New York Institution "Silent Workers"	52.00
Kentucky School	40.00
Kansas School	13.35
South Dakota School	4.20
Western Pennsylvania Institution	28.20
Clarke Training School Graduates (Native Teacher's Salary)	40.00
Teachers' Association, Pennsylvania Institution	15.00
*"Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet Memorial Scholarships"	100.00

From Canada.

Manitoba School	11.00
"Two Friends," Toronto, Canada	8.00

From Great Britain.

Benevolent Society, Edinburgh, Scotland	£45
Friends in Belfast, Ireland	£20

*The "Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet Memorial Scholarships" have been founded by the deaf of Chicago, Illinois, and vicinity under the leadership of Rev. Philip J. Hasenstab.

The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.—From a report in the *Silent Hoosier* of February 17, 1909, we extract the following information concerning a meeting of the Board of Directors recently held in New York:

This meeting of the Board of Directors was an unusually important one in that certain far-reaching changes in the conduct of the *Association Review* were decided upon, which would in some measure influence the work of the Association itself. The questions of aid to schools for the deaf in China, and of retiring service pensions for teachers of the deaf in this country, were discussed by Mr. Johnson, who is serving as chairman of special committees upon the subjects. Mrs. Annetta T. Mills, of Chefoo, China, was present, as also was Dr. A. W. Halsey, Secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, and both gave interesting talks as to present needs and future hopes. They are trying to raise $60,000 or more as an endowment fund for the purpose, and their efforts are being rewarded. Mrs. Mills reported that Mrs. Kennedy of New York had contributed $10,000.

Much interest was displayed in the service pension for teachers of the deaf. Mr. Johnson reported that he was seeking information as to the probable number of teachers who would be entitled to such recognition if any arrangements could be made, as was explained in the January number of the *Annals*. A resolution was passed endorsing the movement and urging its importance.

The future conduct and usefulness of the Volta Bureau was given consideration and Mr. Booth was made Superintendent thereof. The Board of Directors is to be enlarged, and an Advisory Committee, national in scope, and composed of notable people within and without the profession, is to be established. This Committee will have as its permanent chairman the Founder of the Association, Alexander Graham Bell, who is also a member of the Board of Directors. As a matter of general interest it may be added here that Dr. and Mrs. Bell will leave within a short time for a tour of the world, being gone for probably a year.

Action was taken to urge upon superintendents and boards of trustees of schools for the deaf everywhere such steps as would tend to eliminate from the names of such schools the words institution, asylum, deaf-mutes, dumb, and the like, all of which tend to foster the idea of special benevolence and charity, are misleading to the public mind, and prevent their general recognition as being what they really are—schools, and a part of the general educational system of the country, of like kind and degree as schools for the hearing. The ends and aims of schools for the deaf and for the hearing are the same—preparation for right living and the making of law-abiding, self-supporting, honorable citizens. Protest was made against the one being styled a charity while the other was not.

The American Laryngological, Rhinological, and Otological Society.—The annual meeting of this Society will be held in Washington, D. C., April 28, 29, and 30, 1910. A prominent feature of the meeting will be a symposium on "The Deaf Child from the Viewpoint of the Physician and the Teacher." The following papers are on the programme:

1. "The Physiology and Psychology of Hearing with Special Reference to the Development of Speech," by Dr. G. Hudson-Makuen, Philadelphia, Pa.
2. "The Pathology of Deaf-Mutism," by Dr. Francis R. Packard, Philadelphia, Pa.
3. "What the Physician May Do for the Deaf Child," by Dr. M. A. Goldstein, St. Louis, Mo.
4. "The Development of Hearing in the Deaf Child," by Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, Swarthmore, Pa.
5. "The Mental Development of the Deaf Child," by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, Washington, D. C.
6. "The Development of Speech in the Deaf Child," by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
7. "The Development of Language in the Deaf Child," by Mr. J. W. Jones, Columbus, Ohio.
8. "The Development of Speech-Reading in the Deaf Child," by Miss Mary McCowen, Chicago, Ill.

The Discussion of the subject will be opened by Dr. James Kerr Love, of Glasgow, Scotland, who comes to America specially to attend the meeting of the Society as its guest.

The National Educational Association.—The meeting of the National Educational Association this year will be held in Boston, July 2–10. The Grand Trunk Railway offers a rate of one first-class limited fare for the round trip. The return tickets will be good two weeks and for a fee of $1.00 may be extended sixty days. For further general information address the Secretary of the Association, Mr. Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minnesota; for information concerning the Department of Special Education address the Secretary of the Department, Miss Martha C. Bell, Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

The Tenth Conference of Superintendents and Principals.—The last Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf was held in St. Louis in 1904 during the Louisiana Exposition. It was then agreed to hold the meetings of the Conference triennially: and the next one, upon the invitation of Mr. R. O. Johnson, Superintendent of the Indiana School, was to have been held in Indianapolis in 1907. Meanwhile, in 1905, the Seventeenth Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was held at Morganton and it was there voted to hold the Eighteenth Meeting at the Utah School in 1907. In consequence of this action the Conference of Superintendents and Principals for 1907 at Indianapolis was naturally dropped. In 1907, for various reasons, the Meeting of the Convention in Utah was postponed to 1908; which again made impracticable the holding of the Conference at Indianapolis that year. In 1909 the Meeting of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech was held in Chicago; and this again interfered with the holding of the Conference that year.

For 1910 there is no summer meeting of any kind provided for, and this seems to be a good year to hold the Conference. In 1911 the Convention of American Instructors will meet at Delavan, Wisconsin, and in 1912 the Speech Association at some point yet to be selected.

But on account of the present conditions at the Indiana School, the old buildings being almost in ruins for want of repair, and the new buildings not yet completed, and because of financial stringency, the Board of Trustees of that School consider it inexpedient to entertain the Conference this year. In addition to the existing conditions, there is some prospect that this summer our Indiana friends will be engaged in tearing up the old buildings and entering the new ones. This would mean a chaotic state of affairs from June until October.

In view of these facts the Executive Committee of the Conference now have under consideration the following questions:

1. Shall the meeting of the Conference be held this coming summer?

2. If so, where shall the meeting be held?

3. Shall the regular Conference be omitted this summer and a business meeting of the Conference be held in its stead during the meeting of the Convention at Delavan in 1911?

The National Educational Association this year, as above stated, meets in Boston July 2–10. Mr. Johnson suggests that the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of Schools for the Deaf might hold a meeting in or near Boston at or immediately after that time, thus enabling members also to attend the sessions of the Association and its Department of Special Education—though of course the Conference would have no connection with either—and to enjoy the benefit of the low rates of travel offered by the Association.

The Executive Committee of the Conference would be glad to hear immediately from Superintendents and Principals as to whether they desire to meet this year or not, and to receive from them suggestions in reply to the three questions above stated. Communications should be addressed to the Chairman of the Committee, Mr. R. O. Johnson, Superintendent of the Indiana School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Indiana.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

BUREAU OF INFORMATION.

The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf maintains a free Bureau of Information for the use of superintendents and principals seeking the services of teachers and officers, and for teachers, matrons, and supervisors desiring positions.

The Bureau keeps on file the names of all applicants for positions in schools for the deaf, together with information as to length of service, work desired, salary expected, etc. It endeavors to give prompt and accurate replies to all requests for information.

All are invited to make use of this free Bureau.

PERCIVAL HALL, *Secretary*,
GALLAUDET COLLEGE,
Washington, D. C.

SUMMER SCHOOL.

Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro will hold a session of her summer school in Boston, Massachusetts, from July 1 to July 29, 1910, for the training of teachers and others.

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